DELHI GAZETTEER

CONTENTS

FOREWORD

I am happy that the Gazetteer Unit of the Delhi Administration has revised the Gazetteer of Delhi. The first Gazetteer of Delhi was published in 1883-84 It had been primarily based upon the Settlement Report of the Delhi District, which had been prepared earlier by Maconachie. But when the Gazetteer of India was revised in 1907-09, largely under inspiration from Lord G N Curzon, the Viceroy and Governor-General of India (1899-1905), the task of revising the Gazetteer of Delhi too was given its due importance Shri H C Beadon, the Deputy Commissioner of Delhi, took up this assignment The revised edition of the Delhi Gazetteer was published in 1912

The momentous decision to transfer the capital of India to Delhi and its announcement at the Imperial Darbar on 12 December 1911 restored to Delhi its lost glory The new capital city was designed for this purpose by Sir Edwin Lutyens and Sir Herbert Baker But apart from the new capital there was a phenomenal growth of activity in and around Delhi Population of Delhi began to increase to meet the demands of a growing city, expected to assume its metropolitan character Commercial and industrial conditions improved Growing pace of our freedom struggle under the leadership of Mahatma Gandhi brought a dynamic change in our outlook We not only attained our independence but also made progress on all fronts Transfer of power in 1947, which brought in its wake heavy influx of population into Delhi, posed a variety of problems for the Delhi Administration Consequently, the developmental activity in Delhi was geared up to face this challenge and to bring about a rapid progress in all spheres of life

The last Gazetteer of Delhi having been published in 1912, had thus lost its utility It could neither educate the administrator nor the people or reflect the thoughts, ideals

and aspirations of the people of Delhi It was against this background that the Delhi Administration decided to revise the Gazetteer of Delhi

The new Delhi Gazetteer has followed the uniform pattern laid for the purpose by the Government of India, Ministry of Education & Social Welfare It has been completely re-written and is more systematic and informative than either of the earlier ones An attempt has been made to incorporate in it the latest information But the pace of development has been so rapid that some of the information became out-dated soon after the actual writing of the chapters A few photographs and 2 maps have also been added to give the reader an idea about the monuments and the historical places mentioned in this Volume

It is gratifying to note that the different chapters in the present volume reflect the all round progress made by Delhi Different scholars associated with this volume are to be specially complimented for this painstaking task Special thanks are due to the Editor and the staff of the Gazetteer Unit of the Government of India, Ministry of Education & Social Welfare for scrutinising the draft and offering valuable suggestions for its improvement

The work of the revision of the Delhi Gazetteer, though taken up at the initiative of Late Shri A N Jha, former Lt Governor of Delhi, was completed during the tenure of his successor Shri Baleshwar Prasad Shri Krishan Chand the present Lt Governor, has also given his valuable guidance and advice to the Gazetteer Unit of the Administration S/Shri S C. Varma. T N Chatuvedi, the former Chief Secretaries and Shri J K Kohli, the present Chief Secretary, have constantly inspired the staff of the Gazetteer Unit and have provided it the much needed guidance at the different stages of this work

Editing of the Gazetteer, which involved considerable amount of work, was done by Dr (Smt) Prabha Chopra We are thankful to her She was succeeded by Dr R K Perti, the present Editor The staff of the Gazetteer Unit,

Delhi Administration deserves special commendation for the hard work put in by them to bring out this volume early in the market.

I hope that this Gazetteer will serve as an authoritative work of reference and would be useful to the administrator, the scholar and the general reader alike

It is also my earnest hope that a Hindi version of this Gazetteer would be available very soon

RADHA RAMAN,
Chief Executive Councillor,
DELHI

DELHI,
April 1, 1976

CHAPTER I

GENERAL

Origin Of The Name

The origin of the name of Delhi is lost in antiquity. The name of Delhi seems to have made its appearance for the first time during 1st and 2nd centuries A.D. Ptolemy, the Alexandrine geographer has marked 'Daidala' in his map of India close to Indraprastha and midway between Mathura and Thaneshwar. Cunningham, the eminent archaeologist, concurs with the tradition accepted by Firishta, author of 'Tarikh-i-Firishta' that Delhi derives its name from Raja Dhilu of early times whose date is not definitely known. The same tradition however suggests that the reign of Raja Dhilu may be assigned to a period earlier than the Christian era. According to another and more reliable tradition Delhi was founded in 736 A.D. by the Tomaras, a Rajput clan, who ruled over the Hariyana country with Dhillika as their capital. The name of Delhi seems to have finally evolved from 'Daidala', 'Dhillika' and 'Dilli'.*

Location, Area And Population

The Union Territory of Delhi is a narrow strip of the Indo-Gangetic plain, lying between 28° 25' and 28° 53' north latitude and 76° 50' and 77° 22' east longitude. It is bounded on the north, west and south by Haryana, on the east by Uttar Pradesh with the river Yamuna flowing on its eastern border in a north-south direction. The area of Delhi, according to 1971 census, is 1,485 sq. kms., its greatest length, and breadth being 51.90 kms. and 48.48 kms. respectively. The total population of Delhi, according to the 1971 census, is 40,65,698 of which 22,57,515 and 18,08,183 are males and females respectively. The population of Delhi at the time of 1961 census was 26,58,612. It has, therefore, recorded an increase of 53 per cent during the last decade. The distribution of area of Union Territory of Delhi by local bodies (1961) is given below

*For details see Chapter II, pp. 43-44

Distribution of Area of Delhi by Local Bodies—1961 *Census*

	Items	Area sq Kilometres	Percentage to the total area
1.	Total Area	1484 00	100 00
2	Delhi Municipal Corporation		
	(i) Rural	1,157 52	78·00
	(ii) Urban	240 85	16 23
	(a) Zone 1-Shahdara	39 48	2 66
	(b) Zone 2 City-Sadar Paharganj	12 91	0 87
	(c) Zone 3-Karol Bagh-Patel Nagar	15 58	1·05
	(d) Zone 4-Civil Lines-Sabzimandi	27 90	1 88
	(e) Zone 5-Transferred Area	41 40	2 79
	(f) Zone 6-South Delhi	64 11	4 32
	(g) Zone 7-West Delhi	39 47	2 66
3	New Delhi Municipal Committee	42 42	2 88
4	Delhi Cantonment Board	42 89	2 89
5	Total Urban	326 48	22 00

History Of Delhi As An Administrative Unit

Delhi was first constituted as a territory in 1803 when General Lake defeated the Marathas in a battle at Patparganj, captured Delhi and brought the Mughal Emperor, Shah Alam, under his control The city along with the neighbouring territory known as the assigned tract comprising (subject to certain exceptions) the districts of Hissar, Rohtak, Gurgaon Delhi and Karnal was placed under the charge of an officer designated as Resident and Chief Commissioner of Delhi The Emperor retained exclusive civil and criminal jurisdiction within the palace only, while throughout the assigned territory, justice was adminstered according to the Muslim law by the British Officers, in the name of the Emperor and sentences of death were referred to the Emperor for his approval The fiscal arrangements were under the entire control of the Resident and his subordinates

The regular division of the Delhi Territory into districts was made in 1819 The district of Delhi as then constituted consisted

of two parganas—the northern and the southern. Between them they comprised the Delhi tahsil, the northern portion of Ballabhgarh tahsil and a small portion of the Rohtak district. In 1832, by Regulation V of the year, the office of the Resident and Chief Commissioner was abolished The territory was added to the North-West Provinces and its administration was entrusted to a Commissioner in correspondence with the Government of North-West Provinces The powers exercised by the defunct Resident and Chief Commissioner were vested in the Board of Revenue and the High (*Sadr*) Court at Agra The enactment laid down that the Commissioner of Delhi territory and his subordinates should in their administration, conform to the principle and spirit of the Regulations It also put an end to the anomalous system of administration hitherto existing and henceforth in law, as well as in actual fact the administration passed into the hands of the East India Company Between 1848 and 1853 a considerable tract on the eastern Yamuna consisting of 160 villages and an area of approximately 500 sq kms from the districts of Meerut and Bulandshahr was added to Delhi This newly acquired territory known as the eastern pargana continued to form part of Delhi till 1858, when after the Revolt of 1857, the Delhi territory was annexed to the newly formed Lt Governorship of the Punjab and the eastern pargana reverted to the North-West Provinces It was also made the headquarters of a Commissioner's division comprising the districts which formed Ambala division in the erstwhile Punjab In 1861, the Sonepat tahsil was transferred to Delhi and from 1862 onwards, Delhi consisted of three tahsils Sonepat, Ballabhgarh and Delhi On December 12, 1911 when the change of capital from Calcutta to Delhi was announced, Delhi tahsil and Mehrauli thana were separated from the Punjab and organised into a separate 'Province of Delhi' headed by a Commissioner With effect from October 1, 1912, Sonepat was transferred to Rohtak and bulk of Ballabhgarh (725 sq Kms) to Gurgaon in the Punjab. In 1915, Shahdara with 65 villages of the Ghaziabad tahsil of Meerut district was transferred to Delhi

Delhi continued to be a centrally administered territory under the provisions of the Government of India Acts of 1919 and 1935 up to January 26, 1950 when Delhi became a Part C State under the new Constitution It then consisted of only one district and one tahsil Under the Part C States Act, 1951, Delhi was granted a legislative assembly with 48 members and was administered by a regularly constituted ministry responsible to the local legislature Under the States Reorganisation Act, 1956, and the Constitution (Seventh Amendment) Act, 1956, Delhi

was constituted as a Union Territory The legislative assembly was abolished and its administration became a direct responsibility of the President acting through an administrator It continued to be governed by a Chief Commissioner till a new administrative set up for the Union Territory was contemplated in 1966 Under the provisions of the Delhi Administration Act, 1966, a Lt Governor, a Metropolitan Council and an Executive Council have been provided for Delhi

According to District Census Handbook 1971 * there was a minor jurisdictional change within the territory of Delhi during the decade 1961-71 The only tahsil of Delhi was bifurcated into two—Delhi and Mehrauli tahsils They in all have rural areas comprising 156 and 102 census villages respectively Besides, the urban area of Delhi is comprised of New Delhi Municipal Committee, Delhi Cantonment and Municipal Corporation (Urban) During the decade 1961-71 the urban portion of Delhi Municipal Corporation further expanded enveloping another 40 villages (119 . 71 sq kms) on its periphery. In turn the rural area shrank by the same number

Topography

The Union Territory of Delhi occupies a nodal position on the sub-continent It is situated on the water-shed dividing two mighty river systems—of the Ganga draining into the Bay of Bengal and of the Sindh falling in the Arabian Sea The vast riverain plains of the sub-continent narrow down in this sector between the Thar-Aravali barrier, projecting itself from the south-west and the Himalayan outliers thrusting themselves from the north, thus giving this area the character of a broad alluvial neck [1] Located at the marshland between the corridors of foreign invasions and the fertile Gangetic plains this region has played a crucial role in Indian history The ruins of at least eight capitals scattered over an area of about 181 3 sq kms provide adequate evidence of the significance of this region in the political geography of India It has been suggested that, barring Rome and Instanbul, no other town in the world has had "such long sustained significance"

The Ridge which is the culminating spur of the Mewat branch of the Aravalis, constitutes the most significant physiographic feature of the region. It enters the Union Territory from the south and extends like a "lean but wiry finger straight to

*Series 27.

the Jamuna" in a north-easterly direction. Skirting the city on the north-west and west, the Ridge appears like the rampart of a huge fort provided by nature to defend the heart of India. A branch of the Ridge separates itself from the main trunk near Bhati and extends in a north-easterly direction up to Arangpur, where it turns to the north-west till it rejoins the main Ridge in a sweeping curve. Apart from this main branch, there are a number of flanking spurs adding to the complexity of the landscape. The Ridge is fairly dissected and storm water *nallas* have etched into its rounded contours. These dry channels, the gulleys and ravines sculptured by soil erosion, the residual hills the boulders scattered over gulleyed pene-plains, the undulating dales and vales—all these give the Ridge a fairly high degree of picturesqueness. Due to inadequacy of water and rocky nature of the terrain, the Ridge is generally bare of vegetation. At best it supports some stunted trees of *Acacia arabica* (kikar) and *capparis aphylla* (karil) or thorny shrubs and bushes of *Zizyphus nummularia* (ber) and other hardy varieties. There are traces of thin laminae of mica over the surface which shines brightly under the inhospitable tropical sun. The water table is low and traditional irrigation is impracticable. Pastures are not widespread but, on gentler slopes, there are patches of grass and shrubs which sustain a certain amount of pastoral activity. Flocks of sheep and goat and their *gujjar* shepherds add a sylvan quality to the landscape especially during the monsoons. Quarrying has been conducted on a fairly large scale and there are a number of disused quarries which have become reservoirs of water and attract animals and birds. The Ridge achieves the height of 1,045 ft. near Bhati which is probably the highest point. Relatively, this point is about 360 ft. higher than Yamuna railway bridge.

The irregular oval enclosed by the two branches of the Ridge described above is in the nature of a plateau. The soil is sandy. A number of earth-work dams were constructed in this area to catch the drainage and use it for agricultural purposes.

The meanderings of the Yamuna through millenniums have left their deep imprint on the physiography of the plains in the region. The 750 ft. contour may be considered as the western boundary of the plains, demarcating it from the Ridge. With an average height of about 700 ft. above sea level, the plains are considerably wider, more fertile and populous in the north and almost lose themselves in the maze of rocky undulations in the region of the historic capitals of Siri and Tughluqabad. Further south, the terrain becomes flatter and more open. The soil in

this part is generally a light sandy loam and lends itself well to agricultural pursuits The country between the Agra Road and the hills to the west begins to get level a few miles below Badarpur The soil in this area is generally sandy, bearing the detritus from the skirting hill slopes It tends to get marshy during the monsoons and even gets flooded in some places

✓ The Yamuna plains have a deep mantle of Quaternary alluvium The presence of horizons rich in detrital minerals like garnet and mica and the general absence of grain-rounding point to its riverine origin These deposits laid down to the east of the Ridge up to the western bank of the Yamuna generally comprise unconsolidated strata of silt clay and sand, interbedded with nodular calcareous material in places

The discerning eye can recognise important lines of demarcation breaking the monotony of the Yamuna plains The region of the recent deposits is known as the *Khadar* It occupies a lower level and is liable to inundation during the floods As the Yamuna gets older and its bed sinks lower a greater percentage of its deposits are found to be of a younger age, which come to occupy a lower level than that of the earlier deposits The *Khadar* has a light sandy soil The water table is fairly high, facilitating irrigation from wells

The *Bangar* is the region of the earlier Pleistocene deposits The general level of the *Bangar* is higher than that of the *Khadar* The water table is comparatively lower It is characterised by patches of saline efflorescence which are the result of the composition of the alluvium and the gentle slope of the land The damage caused by *shor* has however been considerably minimized by the western Yamuna canal which traverses the *Bangar* and affords satisfactory irrigation facility to this tract

The *Dabar* is a low basin situated to the west of the hills The drainage of the hills collects in this natural receptacle In years of good rain, an area of 51 8 sq Kms or so gets flooded Even during the winter months, the main *jheel* depression on the Gurgaon border occupies an area of about 12 sq Kms Had it not been for the Najafgarh escape channel which carries off a part of the water to the Yamuna, a far larger area would have been inundated The diversion of the Sahibi *Nadi* and the silting up of tributary depressions has contributed to the reduction of the area liable to be flooded

River System And Water Resources

Main Rivers And Tributaries

The general slope of the land in Delhi, as evidenced by the main direction of the river Yamuna, is from north to south. A local water-shed, which is perceptible to the west of the river divides the drainage system of that region into two sectors. While the eastern region drains itself into the Yamuna, the surface water of the western region passes through natural depressions southwards into the Najafgarh Drain

The Yamuna, one of the ancient water courses of north India, forms the chief drainage channel of the territory. The river, running north-south, forms, over the greater part, the eastern boundary of the Delhi Territory with Uttar Pradesh The river has been flowing through the land of Delhi for millenniums and has in this process deposited rich deposits of alluvium on either bank.

The river enters the Union Territory about a mile north of Palla village, at an altitude of some 690 ft. above sea level, and leaves it at a point to the east of Jaitpur below Okhla at an altitude of 650 ft above sea level. Its course within the limits of Delhi extends roughly over some 32 miles, with the fall ranging between 18 to 20 inches to the mile During the rainy season, the river expands considerably in breadth, swelling in places to several miles. The maximum depth in this season is about 25 ft., and the discharge at Okhla is above 4,100 cusecs. In the dry weather, however, the river gets reduced in breadth, the maximum depth dwindles to about 4 ft, and the discharge to less than 200 cusecs. Having been drained of its waters to a considerable extent by the two canals before it enters the territory, the Yamuna meanders across the plains of Delhi as a narrow stream, fordable almost at every point except during the rains The river is flanked by low sandy banks on either side and flows over a bed of riverain sands, though firm rock has also been detected in the bed at the Okhla Weir.

The present course of the river, from village Palla in the north to Jaitpur in the south, is highly tortuous. The general direction up to Wazirabad is due south, from where the river takes a sharp easterly turn. Passing close to the Red Fort, the river flows south-eastwards to Okhla, where its progress is checked by the headworks of the Agra Canal.

Traces of an old course of the river are seen in the abandoned water courses and ox-bow lakes lying on the west of the present channel, especially in its northern reach beyond the borders of Delhi. Popular tradition favours the view that the drainage channel called the Budhi Nala, flowing by Sonepat in the Haryana is the probable old bed of the Yamuna. It is noteworthy that the course of the Budhi practically marks off the division of the country into *Khadar* and *Bangar* A striking evidence in favour of this hypothesis is provided by the elongated slip-like pattern of the rural settlements in eastern *Bangar.* It seems probable that they abutted on the river some time in the past and part of their area is made up of the *Khadar* land deserted by the river How and when the river changed its course is not clear, but it seems probable that the change was a violent rather than a gradual one The possibility of a gradual recession of the river to the east cannot be accepted on account of topographic factors

However, it may be safely assumed that the river once flowed beneath the walls of Sonepat, thence onwards down south by Narela, to somewhere near Azadpur near Delhi on the Grand Trunk Road, where the Aravali under-rocks in the vicinity of Wazirabad might have forced it to take a sharp turn eastwards Below Delhi, the course of the river generally follows the eastern bank of the *Bangar* alluvium In the immediate vicinity of the city, the *Bangar* abuts almost directly on the existing channel The *Khadar,* after reappearing in the fertile lowlands of Indarpat and Ghiaspur, is again cut off at Okhla, and the *Bangar* bank juts forward boldly at that point In the extreme south, near Jaitpur, the old river is again believed to have taken a more westerly course as compared to the present one, and there is evidence to support the view that some time back it passed close by the ancient village of Tilpat

In the northern part of the territory Western Yamuna Canal, which flows over the crest of the watershed, forms the main dividing line between the two separate drainage systems. To the west, the main outlet is provided by the Mungashpur Drain, which, on its way to the Najafgarh Drain, receives numerous small drains, chief of them being the Madanpur Drain The Mungashpur Drain, rising in the Haryana just close to the borders of Delhi and gathering its supply from the low-lying areas around the village of the same name in Delhi, flows down to Bahadurgarh in Rohtak district The West Juan Drain joins the Mungashpur Drain at a point lying to the east of Bahadurgarh. In its downward flow to Bahadurgarh this drain is joined by numerous

minor drains as well After uniting with the West Juan Drain, the Mungashpur Drain again reappears as a distinct channel at a point lying to the north of Jharoda Kalan Thereabout, it receives the Madanpur Drain and flows on eastwards to join the Najafgarh Drain near Hashtsal The total catchment area of the Mungashpur drainage system, including the tributary streams, is estimated to be well above 525 8 sq. kms.

Another drain worthy of mention on this side of the canal is the Nangloi Drain Originating south of Gangatoli Canal Chowki, it flows down to the Nangloi railway station and joins the Najafgarh Drain near Nangloi Saiyidan It has a catchment area of about 82.9 sq. kms.

The area lying to the east of the canal is drained by an artificial channel, which has been excavated in the bed of the Budhi Yamuna, and which provides the main outlet for the drainage of this area to the Yamuna The course of this drain, called Drain No 6, begins at Naraina in Panipat tahsil and becomes co-existent with this probable old bed of the Yamuna It enters the territory of Delhi at a point lying to the east of Narela and flowing through Singhu, Hamidpur and other villages, merges into the Bawana escape channel by Kadipur The Bawana escape channel takes off from the canal a little above Gangatoli Chowki, runs to Kadipur and, after picking up the Wazirpur Drain, falls into the Yamuna a little above Jagatpur

It is significant that outside the Yamuna, the Najafgarh Drain forms the most important drainage channel in the territory Originally, the drain was cut off the Najafgarh *Jheel* in 1838 to provide a channel for the surplus water from the *Jheel* into the Yamuna Starting from the Najafgarh *Jheel*, south of the village of the same name, the drain passes by Kukrolah, Hashtsal and Basai Darapur In its lower reaches, it drains the Delhi urban area and falls into the Yamuna just below the Wazirabad Pumping Station The drain is about 49 9 kms long, and together with its tributary drain already mentioned, serves a catchment area of over 1315 7 sq kms

In the south, numerous rainy-weather *nallas* rush down the hilly slopes of the terrain and drain into the adjoining depression. But the only significant lines of drainage in this part of the territory are the Barah Pulah *nalla* and the Tekhand *nadi*. The Barah Pulah drains the hilly area north-east of Mehrauli and after flowing below the Agra Road bridge (the *nalla*, incidentaly takes

its name from the twelve arches of this bridge) runs into the *Khadar* land south of Humayun's tomb. The Tekhand *nadi* drains the land lying to the west of Mehrauli and, after crossing the Agra Road and canal below Okhla, rushes southwards to the Yamuna.

Floods

The Yamuna has a long history of heavy floods which are mainly caused by the heavy rainfall in the catchment area in the remote mountaneous country. The tendency to flooding is aided by the inadequate capacity of the river to carry the full flood discharge and the flat nature of the country. When in spate, the river encroaches upon the cultivated *Khadar* lands on either side. Adjacent villages get marooned and much havoc to life and property is caused. The floods are generally confined, on the left bank, to the rural areas between the river and the right bank of the Eastern Yamuna Canal, and between the river and the Delhi-Karnal Grand Trunk Road on the right bank.

A number of severe floods have been recorded in the recent past. In 1924, the floods caused heavy damage to the Tajewala Headworks and the Delhi-Shahdara railway line. In 1955, the river rose to a level of 675 ft. at the railway bridge, flooding many low-lying areas including Shahdara. In 1958, 1964, and 1967 again due to heavy rainfall, the floods caused a great havoc.

Lakes And Depressions

The Najafgarh *Jheel*, lying along the Delhi-Haryana border to the extreme south, is by far the largest natural depression. This saucer-shaped *Jheel* is situated near the Najafgarh village about 32.2 kms. south-west of Delhi. During the rainy season the *Jheel* is filled by water from its own catchment area spread over about 906.5 sq. kms. lying partly in the Delhi territory and partly in Haryana. Surplus water from the irrigation reservoirs in the adjoining Gurgaon district also spills in the lake. The normal tank-full level of the *Jheel* is 690 ft. above sea level. When this level is reached, about 7,500 acres get submerged. After heavy rains, however, the lake is not able to discharge its water expeditiously due to the existence of reverse slope in this area and the limited discharge capacity of its outlet—the Najafgarh Drain. Consequently, vast areas around the *Jheel* get water-logged. For example, after the heavy downpour on the night between the 19th and the 20th July, 1958, the water level in the lake rose to 692.4 ft. above sea level, and as a result, about

14,400 acres became submerged. The 1912 Gazetteer reports that once the flooding extended over an area of 207 sq kms. But such extensive flooding no longer takes place. In years of low rainfall, the *Jheel* shrinks and it is possible to carry on cultivation on the lands lying on its fringes

Another depression is located to the north of Bhalawa Jahangirpur along the Grand Trunk Road in its Delhi-Karnal stretch. It is a horse-shoe *jheel* and probably is a remanent of the old Yamuna, when it followed a more westerly course.

North of the Najafgarh *Jheel* there is a vast stretch of low-lying land, extending in a northwest-southeast direction from Mundhela Khurd to the Najafgarh Drain At several places in this area, there occur perennial water pools Those at Shamapur Khalsa and Pindwala Kalan are especially worthy of mention. Other minor lakes are located at Khera in the west and at Gadipur in the south.

Underground Water Resources

The ground water resources of Delhi are limited and their utilization for irrigation on any large scale does not seem to be possible Furthermore, extensive chemical tests have indicated that except for a few isolated wells underground water of Delhi area is generally brackish and unfit for drinking or irrigation

Over the greater part of the territory, the water-table is quite high It is, however, lowest in the area adjacent to the Aravali outcrops Thus the depth of wells lying to the east and north-east of Mehrauli ranges from 30 to 60 ft below the ground level.

The water-table contours in and around the Western Yamuna Canal and the Wazirpur *Jheel* indicate that the supply of water in the sub-soil is fed by these reservoirs. If canal irrigation is stopped, the water-table is liable to sink and the sub-soil water will probably turn brackish The water-table in this area is seldom below 15 ft. while in certain areas the wells are as shallow as 3 ft.

West of the Canal, the sub-soil water occurs at an average depth of 10 to 12 ft. Generally, the wells have a scanty supply of water and water level sometimes goes down by as much as 6 to 7 ft. after a few hours of continuous drawing

A rise in the sub-soil water-table has recently been reported in the New Delhi area. Fortnightly observations were made to ascertain the alleged rise in the water-table It has been found that the table has shown a rise since 1912, when the water-table contours for the Delhi area were first calculated. This rise varies from 2 5 to 15 11 ft in different parts of Delhi.

From the iso-hydrographs drawn every year, it is observed that the water-table is rising at an alarming rate and it is difficult to say whether a state of equilibrium has been attained in the badly affected areas The water-table generally rises from June to October, obviously due to rains. It is held that the rise in the sub-soil water has been effected by an addition to subterrenean supply by way of percolation and seepage Interference in the natural drainage channels as a result of the growth of urbanization has caused water-logging and has increased the extent of resultant percolation and seepage within the built-up area Irrigation has also played a significant role in increasing the seepage of water into the ground The rise in the water-table has posed a serious problem for buildings and roads in the built-up area A scheme, which aims at the physical removal of the increased water supply, is already in operation

Geology

Geological Antiquity

The rocks of Delhi belong to the earliest and latest chapters of the geological history of the earth, the pre-Cambrain and the Quaternary The intervening records are missing here, as the region has been lying exposed to sub-aerial erosion since it rose from beneath the sea in late pre-Cambrain times referred to as belonging to the Alwar Series of the Delhi System, in the nomenclature of Indian geology The Alwar Series of rocks occur in small hills, ridges and plateaus, which are probably vestiges of a major folded structure They are uncomformably overlain and surrounded by the alluvium and wind blown sands of the Quaternary period The Quaternary deposits cover all the plains occupying over three fourth of the area of Delhi

The time-worn hills and plateaus which are made up of the Alwar Series of rocks are of special interest to the geologists and geographers being the north-eastern extension of the Aravali

range of Rajasthan, perhaps one of World's oldest mountain ranges of significant size. It extends south-west from Delhi to near Admedabad, a distance of about 800 kms. with maximum elevation of about 1,100 metres in Rajasthan. It has been saved from erosion by repeated uplifts since it rose from beneath the sea during pre-Cambrain period some 1,500 million years ago. Compressional force from the north west was responsible for its rebirth towards the end of pre-Cambrain period about 800 million years ago. During the Permo-Carboniferous period, 250 million years ago, when India, Malagasy, South Africa, South America, Australia and Antaetica were united forming Gondwanaland, the Aravali, Range was the backbone of the north-eastern angle of the great continent. It then rivalled the Himalayas in dimension and from its north-west flank glaciers flowed across western Rajasthan. It was rejuvenated in the Cretaceous (720 million years ago) and Pleistocene times more than a million years ago. The evidence of its past levelling down is seen in the flat ledges found on the flanks of the range.

The Alwar Series is made up of a great thickness of compact quartzites, grits and conglomerates with minor clay and limestone beds In Delhi, the quartzites are the most prevalent They are known as Alwar or Delhi Quartzites

Physiography

The hills, ridges and plateaus, formed of the Delhi Quartzites no where attain an elevation over 150 metres above the ground surface within the Territory Viewed from a distance, the hilltops appear as a level surface but when ascended, they are found to be uneven being intercepted by ramifying ravines and separated by low bare ridges Between the projecting quartzites are sandy soils supporting thorny bushes which lend colour when they bloom Prickly thorns, however, make them inhospitable. Perhaps the feature that strikes any observant traveller during summer is the barrenness of the rocks—too destitute of water for possibility of cultivation. During the rainy season, July and August, a carpet of herbaceous plants spreads out between the shrubs and the stunted trees

Describing the relief due to the quartzites, we start with the Delhi Ridge which emerges out of the alluvium on the right bank of the Yamuna near Timarpur, north of old Delhi. It runs in a south-south-western direction with its surface gradually rising from the Mutiny Memorial on the Ridge After some distance its con-

tinuity is broken but it reappears near Sadar Bazar. On reaching Munirka, it branches into two, one going directly south into the Gurgaon district following the boundary of the Territory, the other turning south-east passes through Mehrauli and finally widens into a large north-east, south-west trending lenticular tableland partly lying in the south-eastern corner of Delhi There are also irregular spurs which break the continuity of the ridges and at the same time greatly expand the area of the ridges Here and there are also isolated ridges and tablelands

The isolated tableland of Tughluqabad, south of Okhla railway station attains a height of about 243 metres above sea level and 30 metres above the surface of the plain The casual visitors to Delhi can see the exposures of the Delhi Quartzites as small ridges while passing through Shankar Road, Paharganj, Kalkaji, Timarpur and on the way to Qutb Minar There are no exposures of the rock west of Palam

Geological Formation

The physiographic features in and around Delhi are controlled by the lithology and structure of Alwar Series of rocks, that is Alwar or Delhi Quartzites The historic Ridge of Delhi is the most northerly prolongation of Alwar Series, south of Delhi, the nearly NNE-SSW trending ridges are broader in width and connect with the prominent plateau south of Tughluqabad The ridges and plateau owe their existence to the hard quartzites which are resistent to erosion The ridges are strike ridges The bedding of quartzites, which compose the ridges, are inclined at moderate to steep angles (40° to 90° approximately) usually eastwards and sometimes westwards, the strike of bedding generally ranges from N-S to NE-SW The attitude of quartzite strata suggest the occurrence of large scale folds which are overturned eastwards The greater width of ridges south of Delhi is likely to be due to the increase in number of folds which repeat the quartzite strata

The quartzites, which constitute the plateau south of Tughluqabad indicate a general N-S to NE-SW strike and moderate to steep dip of strata However, dips may be irregular and nearly E-W strike may be observed Although the plateau appears to be flat tableland it is actually very uneven in detail. It is trenched by ramifying ravines which trend mainly along the strike of quartzite beds (impure softer variety) and are separated by low ridges representing relatively harder beds

Delhi Quartzites

The Delhi Quartzites are white, pale grey or pale pinkish in colour, more or less streaked and mottled with brown and reddish tints due to the grains of iron oxide and oxidized pyrite grain they contain They break with sub-conchoidal fracture and sharp splintery edges showing clearly vitreous quartz grains of which they are essentially composed Ripple marking and current bedding are common while sun cracks are less frequent There are three sets of dominant joints—two are almost vertical and the other is nearly horizontal

Under the microscope, the quartz is usually present as a mosaic of interlocking allotromorphic crystals showing little sign of original rounded grains or any secondary growth around it Detrital pieces of muscovite and tourmaline are common, while biotite, iron ore and pyrite are also found

Pegmatites

In several localities thick pegmatites occur these rocks consist of white kaolinised feldspar, biotite, a little quartz and very scanty tourmaline

Quaternary Deposits

The Quaternary deposits laid on the Delhi Quartzites consist of terrestrial materials such as alluvium, grit and gravel deposited by running water and sand deposited by wind action The Quaternary is the youngest geological period It is a little more than a million years old and consists of two divisions; the older division called the Pleistocene and the younger, the Recent, which began about 12,000 years ago since the withdrawal of the last glaciation from the Himalaya. There is evidence showing that India was affected by a certain amount of irregular warping during the Pleistocene with the result that alluvium which is being deposited can be distinguished from the ancient alluvium The former is known as *Khadar* and the latter as *Bangar*, corresponding respectively to the Recent, and Middle-to Upper Pleistocene The Delhi Ridge divides the two types of alluvium The *Khadar* (or Newer Alluvium) on the east on lower grounds (200 m) and the *Bangar* (Older Alluvium) on the West on slightly higher grounds (200-250 m) In texture the *Bangar* is uniformly silty sand while the *Khadar* varies between clay and coarse sand Detailed soil analyses have indicated the *Bangar* alluvium to be of partly aeolian origin. Its coarseness may be attributed to the presence of blown sand of nearby sandy regions of Rajasthan The *Khadar*

alluvium, on the other hand, is undoubtedly riverain, having been deposited by the Yamuna The process of sedimentation of the *Bangar* alluvium was not continuous The occurrence of conglomerate horizons at different levels in the *Bangar* suggests the intervening periods of rest perhaps due to fluctuation of crustal movements which resulted in the uplift of the peneplained Delhi Quartzite and the terracing of the *Bangar* itself with rest of the graded flood plain of the *Khadar* The young system of ravines in the *Bangar* indicates that process of degradation is going on even now

Wind-blown sand locally forms a thin blanket over the alluvium Associated with the sand are found thin pans of carbonate,*Kankar* occurring within three metres of the surface Wind action has also caused deposition of sand as dunes found west of Palam and beyond The dunes trend in north-west, north-east to north-south direction at right angles to the direction of the prevailing wind

Seismic Phenomena

Delhi lies in a belt liable to earthquakes up to moderate intensity Slight tremors not felt by people are recorded by seismographs at Delhi Seismological Observatory several times in a year Recently, the epicentres of many earthquakes of slight intensity have been found to be within 100 kms of Delhi These earthquakes are due to faults, the Sohna fault and the hidden Moradabad faults Besides the earthquakes from these sources, the region is also affected by large earthquakes occurring in the highly seismic Himalayan region and in Kutch These are unstable zones in the earth's crust In the southern flank of the Himalaya there is a belt of long parallel faults where crustal adjustments take place due to the uplift of the Himalaya Of the ten important earthquakes felt in Delhi during the past 40 years, five had their origin near Delhi These were of 1720 1803 1956 1962 and 1964 The maximum damage was caused by the 1803 earthquake when the top storey of the Qutb Minar was destroyed The Indian Meteorological Department has set up a most modern seismological observatory at the Ridge near the Delhi University It is equipped with such sensitive instruments which can record earthquakes occurring anywhere in the world

Mineral Wealth

Except of building and road making materials and some china clay deposits, Delhi has no other minerals of economic importance The Delhi Quartzites provide inexhaustible supply of

building and road making materials The rocks are extensively quarried at Paharganj, Kalkaji, Jhandewalan, Rohtak Road, Mehrauli, Rathia Lado Sarai and other places. The Delhi Ridge is scoured with quarries.

Kankar is available all over the area. It occurs both at the surface and at shallow depths Beds of *Kankar* are particularly exposed near the surfaces in the stream sections in hilly areas. A reddish gravelly *Kankar*, locally known as *bajri* is often found in the beds of such streams, and is generally used for surfacing local roads. *Kankar* had been used extensively for limemaking in the past.

Because of low rainfall, high temperature and evaporation and also on account of insufficient underground drainage due to obstruction from impervious clay, the alluvium in many places becomes impregnated with snow-like saline efflorescenes called *reh* during the dry season

Altered pegmatites intrusive into the quartzite are the sources of china clay at several places about three kilometres west of Qutb Minar. The deposits are located near Mehpalpur and Kusumpur

In 1962, there were seven lessees working the china clay, and the mineral was consumed for making stone-ware, jars, crockery and fire-bricks. Mines at Kusumpur were, probably worked in the time of the Mughal emperors Delhi is famous for the craftmanship of blue vases Some quantity of china clay produced is also sent out to neighbouring places like Faridabad, and Ghaziabad. Silica sand and quartz produced during mining and washing of the china clay are utilized in the local pottery industry Occasionally, crystals of quartz and beryl are found during mining of the clay Other minerals found in the pegmatites include small flakes of muscovite mica, some tourmaline (and beryl)

Ground Water

The average annual rainfall in Delhi is about 54 centimetres falling mostly during July to September The Delhi Ridge is the principal watershed of the region The average yield of water from the zone of saturation in dug wells in the Newer Alluvium. i.e in the area to the east of the Ridge is from 25 ·9 to 340 9 kilolitres per day, the daily average yield being 152 3 kilolitres The water is potable or slightly saline. In the Older Alluvium occurring in the area to the west of the Ridge, the yield is between

16.4 and 164 kilolitres per day, averaging 35.5 kilolitres per day the water being highly saline to brackish. The wells dug in the Alwar Quartzite, the basement rock produce potable to slightly saline water, the yield being 32.7 to 195.5 kilolitres per day, averaging 81.8 kilolitres.

Flora

The twin cities of Delhi and New Delhi situated along the western bank of the river Yamuna, are bordered by the Thar Desert of Rajasthan, the Indo-Gangetic Plain, and the Aravalis. Because of this geographical location and the sub-tropical climate of the area its physiographic features and its plant cover are varied. Thus the natural vegetation of this region is a synthesis of certain aspects of the floras of the arid regions of Rajasthan, of the drier regions of the upper Gangetic Plain, and of the plains of Haryana. As one flies into Palam, the international airport in New Delhi, the few so-called tall buildings of New Delhi catch the eye because of the low open thorny forest of this territory, botanically called the scrub forest type of vegetation.

The average elevation of the cities of Delhi and New Delhi is 213 metres above mean sea level. The climate of this territory is characterized by a dry scorching summer (maximum temperature ranges from 43 to 47 C) and a dry winter sandwiching a wet monsoon. Corresponding to the climate there are three distinct vegetational seasons. The overall climate is, however, unfavourable for the growth of any luxuriant vegetation.

Most of the plants found on ridges in valleys, on flat slopes in marshes and ponds and along river banks, are naturally occurring; the others though not indigenous have long become naturalized. Trees are sparse of medium size and thorny. The vegetation canopy is open and offers sufficient scope for a dense herbaceous ground cover. Nonetheless, owing to the low rainfall (annual average 66 cm) and the gravelly substratum, the upper strata of the soil do not support any dense perennial vegetation. Thus during most part of the year the climatic and soil conditions of Delhi favour a semi-desert vegetation.

The Scrub Forest Of The Ridge

A spur of the Aravali Hills of Rajasthan spreads across the territory of Delhi in the southwest-northeast direction. This is the Delhi Ridge, often distinguished into the so-called Old Delhi Ridge and the New Delhi Ridge. The Ridge and its neighbouring hilly

tracts represent the natural flora which is a tropical, thorny, secondary forest. The greater portion of the reserved forest of this territory is located on the New Delhi Ridge opposite the Rashtrapati Bhavan at the back of the famous Laxmi Narayan Temple, popularly known as Birla Mandir.

The vegetation of the Ridge can be grouped into two broad categories: (i) the permanent vegetation, and (ii) the ephemeral vegetation.

The permanent vegetation of the Ridge abounds in thorny tree species and a few shrub species Acacias dominate the tree group. *Acacia arabica* (kikar), *A catechu* (katha), *A. leucophloea* (ronj), and *A modesta* (phulahi) are only four of the 12 species of *Acacia* *Prosopis* is the co-dominant member; *Lantana* is not found wild The other conspicuously distributed tree members are *Salvadora persica* (pilu), *S oleoides* (haldu), *Balanites roxburghii* (hingot), *Azadirachta indica* (neem), *Butea monosperma* (dhak), *Ehretia*, and *Dichrostachys* The wild date-palm (*Phoenix sylvestris*) occurs as a few isolated clumps The chief shrub constituents of the permanent vegetation are *Capparis sepiaria* (heens), *C. decidua* (karir), *Ziziphus nummularia* (ber), *Maytenus senegalensis* (kakera), *Cordia dichotoma* (lasocra), and species of *Grewia* *Adhatoda vasica* (bansa) grows as a very common, gregarious undershrub co-dominant with *Capparis sepiaria* The two-tone (light pink and cream) flowers of kunlai (*Dichrostachys cinerea*) and the bright scarlet flowers of dhak (*Butea monosperma*) help largely break the monotony of the canopy of thorns which the Ridge vegetation is

The geological folding of quartzite rocks at random has caused scattered depressions in the Ridge Because of the shelter and shade which they provide, the plant cover in these low valleys represent species, such as *Anogeissus pendula* (dhoy), *Diospyros cordifolia* (tendu), *Jasminum multiflorum* (safed chameli), *Tecomella undulata* (rohera), *Securinega leucopyrus* (haitho), and *Ziziphus oenoplia* (ber), which are typical of the Aravali system of vegetation

The ephemeral vegetation of the Ridge comprises the annuals which come up mainly during the brief monsoon season when moisture is abundant both in the soil and in the atmosphere. Some of the common herbs forming the ephemeral vegetation are *Achyranthes aspera* (lapa), *Peristrophe bicalyculata* (missi) *Tephrosia purpurea* (jhojhru), *Boerhavia diffusa* (punarnava), *Triumfetta*

rhomboidea (kasni), *Sesamum indicum* (til). *Cleome viscosa* (hulhul), *Tribulus terrestris* (gokhru), *Ocimum americanum*, species of *Corchorus* and *Indigofera*, and several grasses and sedges. The thorny shrubs of the permanent vegetation provide support to the growth of many climbers and twiners such as *Coccinia cordifolia*, *Ipomoea pes-tigridis*, *Maerua arenaria*, *Pergularia daemia*, *Rivea hypocrateriformis* (amarbel), *Cryptostegia grandiflora Rhynchosia minima*, *Trichosanthes cucumerina* (rambel), and the semiparasite *Dendrophthoe falcata* (banda).

The science-minded elite have not lagged behind in harnessing Delhi's vegetation The disputed ratanjot (*Arnebia hispidissima*) and the importance of its root which yields a dye claimed to desirably colour the vanaspati (hydrogenated fat) are often written about in the local dailies The punarnava (*Boerhavia diffusa*) has been richly exploited by the Hamdard Dawakhana, a very large pharmaceutical company in Delhi

In winter, the ephemeral vegetation is rather poor, a few annuals such as the chickweeds (*Spergula arvensis* and *Stellaria media*) put on small but pretty blooms

Vegetation Of The Riverine Tract

The sandy and alkaline soil on the banks of the Yamuna supports a rich vegetation after the monsoon and during winter Being low-lying the Yamuna river tract is subject to annual inundation and frequent fluctuations in water level With the receding of water in winter, a characteristic flora develops, it comprises water-loving herbs, sedges and species of high altitude and temperate region Some of the common plants of these muddy and marshy regions are the liverwort (*Riccia*), horsetail (*Equisetum*), a tiny buttercup (*Ranunculus sceleratus*), *Potentilla supina*, species of *Ammania Mazus japonicus Polygonum plebeium*, and *Juncus bufonius* On the drier regions of the banks *Saccharum spontaneum* (kans) and *Tamarix troupii*, *Salsola baryosma*, and *Suaeda fruticosa* (bui) are common

Aquatic Flora

In the low-lying areas there are several marshes, ponds, and puddles, the soil is rich in clay and organic matter. During summer many of the ponds go dry, whereas after the monsoon they support a luxuriant aquatic vegetation Some of the most common aquatic plants of Delhi are *Chara* (a very highly developed green alga), the 4-leaved clover-like water fern *Marsilea*, *Hydrilla*

verticillata, *Vallisneria spiralis*, the blue lotus *Nymphaea nouchali*, *Polygonum glabrum*, *Nymphoides cristatum*, the water hyacinth *Eichhornia crassipes*, the water chestnut *Trapa bispinosa* (singhara), the cat-tail *Typha angustata*, the so-called insectivorous bladderwort *Utricularia flexuosa*, and the duckweeds (*Lemna*, *Wolffia*, and *Spirodela*)

Weeds

Apart from the plants of the two major habitats so far described (the Ridge, and the Yamuna banks), several other species occupy varied habitats and are mostly encountered as weeds These weeds form a group of their own and represent an important section of the herbaceous plant cover of Delhi Many of these are species of wide distribution and produce in great numbers viable seeds, which can withstand the vagaries of the climate of Delhi, and thus survive several seasons Each season characteristic weeds appear in almost every habitat In the monsoon, the amaranths, the herbaceous crotalaria, euphorbias, some labiates, *Convolvulus arvensis*, species of *Corchorus*, and many grasses, make their appearance. The winter weeds include *Anagallis arvensis*, *Coronopus didymus* *Fumaria indica*, *Lathyrus aphaca*, *Medicago denticulata*, *Phalaris minor*, *Polypogon monspeliensis*, *Poa annua*. *Sisymbrium irio*, *Veronica agrestis*, and the chickweeds. Weeds such as *Boerhavia diffusa*, *Erigeron bonariensis* (phulnl), *Euphorbia hirta* (dudhl), and *Tridax procumbens* occur during both monsoon and winter Some of these weeds occur also in cultivated fields Among those found in the relatively cool atmosphere of the fruit orchards and crop fields are *Ageratum conyzoides* (nilam), *Antirrhinum orontium*, *Artemesia scoparia*, *Asphodelus tenuifolius*, *Bulbostylis barbata*, *Bidens biternata*, *Desmodium gangeticum*, *Dipteracanthus patulus*, *Euphorbia dracunculoides*, *Gisekia pharnaceoides*. *Malvastrum coromandelianum*, *Melitotus alba*, *M indica* (metha). *Mollugo cerviana*, *Phyllanthus fraternus* (nunki), *Vaccaria pyramidata*, *Vicia hirsuta*, and *V. sativa* The broomrape (*Orobanche aegyptiaca*) and the dodder (*Cuscuta* species) which are total parasites and the semiparasitic witchweed (*Striga* sp) are also commonly encountered in crop fields Of these, *Cuscuta reflexa* (amar bel) has become a rampant pest all over Delhi. The source plant of the cardiac drug reserpine, *Rauvolfia serpentina* which in the recent past was a naturalized weed might now be found as an occasional escape. Weeds common on the roadsides and in wastelands are the amaranths, chenopodiums, cocklebur, herbaceous cassias. ak (*Calotropis* species) and the exotics, the Mexican poppy (*Argemone mexicana*) and *Croton bonplandianum*, which have become naturalized Inhabiting the walls, crevices, and

fissures in the several monuments and ruins of Delhi is a well-recognizable plant community Some representatives of this community are *Kickxia*, *Tridax*, *Alhagi*, *Vernonia*, *Lycium*, *Chrysopogon*, and the wall fern *Actinopteris*.

Cryptogamic Flora

A few words about the cryptogamic flora (non-seed-bearing plants) of Delhi The aquatic habitats are rich in planktonic algae Of the macroscopic algae *Chara* is abundant The climate of Delhi is too dry for any rich growth of fleshy fungi, a wood-rotting fungus (*Ganoderma lucidum*), a mushroom (*Agaricus campestris*) and *Psaliota* are known from Delhi More common are the parasitic (both ecto- and endo-) fungi *Graphiola phoenicis* on *Phoenix sylvestris*, *Cercospora* on *Calotropis* and several other hosts, *Ravenelia* on *Albizzia lebbeck*, *Erysiphe* on wheat and sweet pea, *Albugo* on crucifers are some examples Like the fleshy fungi saprophytic fungi are also rare, *Xylaria* on wood and *Cyathus* on hay may be cited as representatives Lichens and epiphytic cryptogams are unknown Two species of a liverwort (*Riccia*) and 17 species of mosses (the chief being *Physcomitrium*) are the only bryophyta of Delhi Of the ferns and their allies, the horsetail, two water ferns (*Marsilea* and *Azolla*), and the wall fern (*Actinopteris*) are wild, still fewer thrive as cultivated ornamentals.

Crop Plants

Delhi produces mainly for local consumption some cereal, pulse, vegetable, and fruit crops *Pennisetum typhoides* (bajra), *Sorghum vulgare* (jowar), and *Cajanus cajan* (arhar), are the kharif (rainy season) crops Wheat, sugarcane, sarson (rape), and lentil are the chief crops of the winter season The vegetable crops outnumber the cereal and pulse crops In summer and pre-monsoon months, several gourds, melons, and squashes flood the market, the winter vegetables abound in radish, cabbage, cauliflower, knol-kohl, carrot, capsicums, peas and beans, and the greens The chief fruit crops are *Syzygium cumini* (jamun), jujube and papaya The production of none of the crops meets the demand of the all-time increasing population of Delhi Nevertheless, increasing urbanization is further endangering vegetable and fruit growing

Plants Of Parks And Gardens

In addition to the natural flora, much of the greenery in Delhi's flora is contributed by the several gardens, parks, and avenues Most of the residential areas, traffic islands, and circuses

present an array of ornamental and shade-giving plants. Because of its historical importance since ancient times Delhi has been noted for the development of parks and gardens, of late there has been an increasing recognition by authorities of the necessity of providing such open spaces in the fast-growing metropolis of Delhi and New Delhi. Each park and garden has its own charm.

The Mughal Gardens rosary is considered the finest in Asia. The terraced garden with a central oval pond, the lush green carpety lawn, the majestic thujas, the showers of the vermilion-coloured blooms of *Pyrostegia venusta,* the unending variety of flowering herbs and shrubs, the well-pruned bushes of *Citrus microcarpa* (narangi) laden with golden-brown rotund fruits, the red-stone paths, and the many fountains make the Mughal Gardens one of the most fascinating.

Most of the gardens which were developed before India's independence, are associated with historical monuments, and have been largely influenced by the rulers of Delhi over centuries. These include the Lodi Garden, Qudsia, Nicholson Park, Roshanara Bagh, and Qutb Gardens. These gardens generally present a sombre layout with an abundance of evergreen plants. In addition asparagus, croton, jasmines, Rangoon creeper, and other eye-catching creepers, henna or mehndi (*Lawsonia* species), and the maroon-coloured bougainvillae and the stately *Roystonea regia* (bottle palm) are found in plenty. In these gardens, one finds the best quality of aromatic flowers of each season adding colour to the verdure around.

The gardens which have developed after independence are characterized by diverse blends. They present an array of foliage and blossom and an admixture of tropical and sub-temperate plants. Among many such gardens the Buddha Jayanti Park deserves special mention. Developed on the New Delhi Ridge in the Japanese style, the Buddha Jayanti Park has preserved the natural environment of the Ridge and has, at the same time, added to it miles of green lawns and colourful shrubbery.

The park surrounding the Rajghat presents a simple yet a serene atmosphere. The trees and shrubs of Rajghat are of both Indian and foreign origin. They include pines, a few other conifers, magnolias, cassias, banyan, eucalyptus, terminalias, *Alstonia*, *Pongamia*, *Thespesia*, shisham, and many more. Each season the shrubbery and the annuals add to the sanctity of the Rajghat, and a visit to the Capital of India is incomplete without paying homage

to the Father of Nation who lies cremated amidst the serenity of the mute yet so meaningful plants The gardens of the India International Centre probably portray the best blend of the exotics and the indigenous plants, some of the representatives are *Allamanda, Bauhinia, Callistemon, Chukrasia, Delonix, Eucalyptus, Jacaranda, Lonicera, Plumeria, Thunbergia,* and *Wistaria* The common hedge plants are *Pithecellobium, Duranta, Tecoma, Lantana, Poinciana,* and the yellow oleander *Thevetia nereifolia* (*peruviana*) which has been recently discovered by an Indian scientist to be the source of a new and very potent cardiac drug, peruvoside Of the nine or ten species of palms introduced into gardens the bottle-palm and *Livistona* species are the most common

The Talkatora Gardens, and the gardens associated with the various other institutions such as the Delhi Zoological Park, the University of Delhi, the Indian Agricultural Research Institute, the National Physical Laboratory, and the Ford Foundation, like many others, have added grace to their surroundings An important annual activity in the metropolitan capital is the organisation of several flower shows during winter which bring out the cream of the gardens

To break the monotony of the tarred roads and stately buildings of New Delhi, the avenues are lined with several flowering trees They provide soothing shade in the dry summer, and when in bloom (usually in March-April) they make pleasing sights Neem is the most common of the avenue trees Among the other common avenue trees are the profusely flowering amaltas which when in bloom, appears like a green canopy bedecked with several chandeliers of yellow bloom, *Mimusops elengi* (maulari) whose ripening fruits remain masked by the dense green foliage, *Mangifera indica* (aam) *Delonix regia* (gulmohur), *Salmalia malbarica* (silk cotton tree), *Dalbergia sissoo* (shisham), *Putranjiva roxburghi* and *Terminalia arjuna* *Grevillea robusta* (silver oak) *Bauhinia variegata* (kachnar), *Ficus religiosa* (pipal), *Salix tetrasperma* (willow), *Eucalyptus, Polvalthia, Jacaranda, Kigelia pinnata* (candelbra tree), and *Lagerstroemia* (often known as the Pride of India) adorn some of the avenues Aesthetes would do well visiting Delhi when it is in bloom during late winter or early summer.

Conclusions

The flora of Delhi comprises nearly 1,000 species of flowering plants belonging to some 120 families Nearly 60 per cent of the species are indigenous or naturalized, and nearly 40 per cent are

either introduced or cultivated. The monocotyledons are in minority (a little over 25%), the lion's share being that of grass family. Unlike the flora of the entire India in which Orchidaceae are the most dominant, Delhi, having a dry climate, has a sole representative of orchids, and that too an insignificant, terrestrial, 5-10 cm tall, small-flowered species, namely *Zeuxine strateumatica* It is rare and may be spotted only with difficulty and after careful search amidst grasses in moist turfs Although the monocots are in minority, the most dominant of the flora of Delhi, as in the Gangetic plain and in Rajasthan, is the grass family, the next dominant is the legume family Another feature which the Delhi flora shares with those of Rajasthan and the drier regions of the Gangetic and Punjab plains is the dominance of two other families, Compositae and Cyperaceae

The overall picture one obtains of the flora of Delhi is that it is a blend of the natural vegetation (as represented by the plants of the Ridge, and of the banks of the Yamuna) and the cultivated plants (of the gardens, parks, and avenues) More than 50 per cent of the indigenous flora comprise tropical or cosmopolitan species Of exotics, nearly 8 per cent is from tropical Africa, less than 5 per cent from the New World and nearly 2 per cent from the temperate There are no endemics

It is the cultivated seasonal annuals that have attracted the attention of the public And for this reason, many cultivables are being introduced in preference to allowing the normal development of the natural vegetation

Fauna

Delhi falls under the Cis-Gangetic Zoological area comprising the whole of the Indian peninsula The Fauna of the region is characteristically oriental and is fairly rich and varied representing various phyla commencing with the protozoa to the mammals

Mammals

The principal indigenous mammals of Delhi belong to the orders of **Carnivora**, **Ungulata**, **Rodentia**, **Chiroptera**, **Insectivora** and **Pholdota**. The carnivorous animals generally found are **lakarbagha** (*Hyaena hyaena*), wolf (*Canis lupus*) fox (*Vulpes begalensis*), jackals (*Canis indicus, Canis aureus*) and leopard

(*Panthera pardus*) Leopards, once abundant in the jungles and low forests, are now rarely found in the stony ravines of the *Kohi* tract where they prey on the cattle Hyaena lives in jungles, during the day it lies up enlarged in porcupine burrows caves or in the crevices under boulders but makes excursions at night in search of prey It is known to raid hencoops and carry away fowls at night The common fox, the wolf and the jackal, are nocturnal and predatory in habits Wolves are fairly common in *Khadar* and *Kohi* regions Foxes and jackals are abundant on lonely hilly ridges Other lesser carnivora are the otters (an aquatic member predating on fishes) Of the two species of mongoose, the large mongoose (Herpestes edward Sii) and the small mongoose (H auropunctatus) are of wide occurrence and are useful animals, being natural enemies of snakes

The Ungulata (hoofed-animals) are represented in the fauna of Delhi by three genera of antelopes and the wild pig or boar Wild pig (*Sus cristatus*) are found in considerable numbers in the *Khadar* tract They are also available across the river Yamuna in southern part of Delhi, and are in plenty in Narela and Shahdara where the sugarcane cultivation forms an attraction to the animals The black buck (Antilope cervicapra) are found in numerous locations usually in small herds (5-8 animals) but in Najafgarh tract and in the vicinity of Mehrauli the herds are large, sometimes consisting of over one hundred animals, Indian gazelle are to be found in quite small herds Another member is the large Indian antelope or Nilgai, (Boselaphus trago-camelus) Nilgai exists in very small numbers, they are so shy of man that their occurrence is seldom reported

Porcupines hares, rats and squirrels constitute the rodent fauna of Delhi They are gnawing, herbivorous or frugivorous, small-sized mammals The porcupine (*Hystrix indica*) is common The hare (*Lepus nigricollis*) is found in abundance in jungles and wooded tracts Common house rat (*Rattus rattus*), nocturnal in habit and mouse (*Mus dubious*) are prolific breeders with a high percentage of population The white bellied house rats (*Rattus rattus rufescence*) and brown coloured house rat (*Rattus rattus rattus*) are also available but they are rather scanty There are two varieties of the Mole rat black and albino of the species *Bandicoota Indica* prevalent in Delhi, both damage paddy store-houses and tuber crops While the Mole rat, black and Indian gerbill or antelope rat (*Gerbillus indicus*) are fairly common. Mole rat-albine is scarce Indian gerbile (with white ventral belly) is responsible for the severe damage to the crops Field rat (*Nesokia*

indica), a serious pest of the gardens and lawns, is fairly common Brown rat (*Rattus norvegicus*), although found in small number, inhabits drainage system and houses Indian desert gerbill (*Meriones hurrianae*) is available only in desert and semi-desert areas.

The ubiquitous squirrels (*Funambulus palmarum*) is a small sized arboreal rodent of common occurrence

The Chiroptera comprise the bats and allied forms Bats are nocturnal creatures which come out at dark and cause damage to fruit trees During the day they live in caves or dark corners of ruins, hanging on their hind legs from beams or other support Well known is the common bat (*Rhinolophus luctus*), the vampire bat (*Megadermalyra*) and the flying fox (*pteropus giganteus*)

Two peculiar mammals are the hedgehog (*Hemiechinus*) and the shrew (*Suncus*) both belonging to an order of mammals called insectivora Hedgehogs which are found in gardens and shrubs, frequent gardens and houses in cold weather

The pangolin or scaly ant-eater belongs to the *Genus Manis* The pangolin is a curious relic, with scales instead of hair on the body and which has a prolonged snout and long tongue to lick up ants from their burrows

The common monkey (*Macaca radiata*) is the only indigenous primate in Delhi. It is found in large number in suburban orchards and near railway stations They cause damage to crops, fruit trees etc., and are a nuisance to human beings also

Birds

The birds of Delhi are of many kinds The commonest birds of Delhi are house sparrow (*Passer domesticus*), but yellow throated sparrow is not uncommon in suburbs Common house-crow (*Corvus splendens*) provides a common sight everywhere but in unpopulated areas jungle crow which is (*Corvus macrorhynchos*) jet black in colour is commonly seen Crow-pheasant (*Cantropus sinensis*) is also available in orchards etc., but is rarely seen in populated areas Wild dove (*Streptopelia senegalensis*), ring-dove (*Streptopelia decaocto*), jungle babler (*Turdoides striatus*) are abundantly found throughout Delhi Nests of common weaver bird (*Ploceus philippinus*) are found outside the populated area, especially in monsoon season Among sea-rangers, pariah kite (*Milvus migrans*) is commonly seen throughout the year circling high in the sky Brahminy kite (*Haliastur indus*), white-backed or Bengal vulture (*Gyps bengalensis*) are

plentiful The resident game birds consists of mostly grey-partridges (*Francolinus pondicerianus*) and few black partridges (*Francolinus francolinus*), blue rock pigeons (*Columba livia*) in countless flocks and common sand grouse, (*Pterocles exustus*) which as usual prefer the sandy tracts of the soil A few green pigeons (*Crocopus phoenicopterus*) are always available on Pipal trees in the vicinity of the river Yamuna and the canals Bush quails (*Perdicula asiatica*) are found throughout the year but grey quails —bater (*Coturnix coturnix*) being migratory birds, are plentiful in cold weather pea-fowls (*Pavo cristatus*) are numerous, easily available on the mountainous ridge

In winter ducks snipes and teals (*Nettapus coromandelianus*) are found wherever ponds and lakes (*Jhils*) are located the most notable localities are Najafgarh Dcbarta and Balsua Iuan Goose both forms, bar headed – Hans (*Anser indicus*) and grey-lag Raj Hans (*Anser anser*) are not very common in summer but they appear in considerable numbers along the river Yamuna and about Najafgarh in winter, specially while the gram crop is almost ripe

Other birds are so numerous that it is hard to prepare and exhaustive list, their varieties and their gay plumage are noticed at once by the visitors The birds which are certainly available in Delhi are, barnets of several kinds the sunbirds the Indian roller –nilkantn (*Coracias benghalensis*) several kinds of king fisher (*Alcedo atthis*) grey hornbil (*Tockus birostris*) nightjar (*Caprimulgus asiaticus*), hawk cuckoo koil crow pheasant parroquet owl, and owlet of several descriptions, eagles vultures falcons and harriers, kites, shrikes, tree pies mainas starlings tailor-birds, crows, doves weaver birds, bee eater fly catchers blue throats robins, swallows swifts martins, babblers, bulbuls hoopoe and several kinds of chats, larks and wagtails

Among water birds may be recorded saras, other herons, coot the Indian darter, snake birds bittern cormorants sand pipers, plovers terns spoonbills adjutants blackibis, and several varieties of storks and egrets

Some of these Delhi birds are as beautiful as any other to be found in the world Amongst them are golden orioles, blossom-headed parakeets, hoopoes, blue tailed bee-eaters, green pigeons, white eyes ashy-headed yellow wagtails and golden peaked wood-peckers

Reptiles

The crocodile (*Crocodilus palustris*) is available in the river Yamuna The crocodiles are responsible for occasional fatalities

Among the lizards, most commonly met with are, house lizard (*Hemidactylus flaviviridis*), garden lizard (*Calotes versicolor*) bamini (*Maubuva dissimilis*), sanda (*Vromastix hardwickii*) and gon (*Varanus monitor*)

Of the poisonous snakes the cobra (*Naja tripudians*) is the most common The krait (*Bungarus coeruleus*) and the viper (*Viper sp*) are also reported Of the harmless snakes *Topodonotus piccator*, available in the lakes and ponds, dhamin (*Zamenis mucusus*), rat snake (*Zamenis fesciolatus*), python (*Python molurus*), worm snake (*Typhlops braminus*), wolf snake (*Lycodon aulicus*), sand snake (*Psammophis leithери*) and dumaii (*Eryx johnii*) are also available

Pond turtle (*Lissemys punctata*) and Box turtle (*Trionyx gangeticus*) abound both in the river and the lakes

Amphibians

Among amphibians the toad (*Bufo melanostictus*) and the Indian bull frog (*Rana tigrina*) are very common

Fishes

There are sixty five species of fish available in river Yamuna tanks, and ponds of Delhi The different species cover the range of forty-one genera and seventeen families, belonging to eight orders Carps and Catfishes constitute the bulk of this fresh water fish fauna and are the most important commercial groups

The carps found in Delhi fall into two categories -the major and minor The major carps are the larger species viz Rohu, (*Labeo*) Catla, and Mrigal or Narian (*Cirrhina*) They are very popular as food fishes, while the minor carps are varieties of Puntu or Bhur (*Barbus*)

The cat-fishes are less popular for food but are more sought out by anglers and sportsmen Most important species are Mulli (*Wallago*), Singhara (*Mystus*), and Silond (*Silonia silundia*)

The Murrel fishes, locally known as 'Shouli' are represented by three species, *Ophiocephalus punctatus O striatus* and *C. marulius* They comprise the 'livefishes' and are very popular food fishes with certain sections of people Mention may also be made of the large fresh-water clupeoid fish, Chital (*Notopterus chitable*) which finds a ready market in Delhi and elsewhere

The fish fauna can be distinguished into the following categories,

(a) *Edible Fishes:* The fishes mostly available in market for human consumption are Singhara (*Mystus seenghala*), Mulli (*Wallago attu*), Rohu (*Labeo rohita*), Catla (*Catla catla*), Kalbons (*Labeo calbasu*) Narian or Mrigal (*Cirrhina mrigala, Cirrhina reba*) Mahseer or Raja (*Barbus tor tor*) Silond (*Silonia silundia*), Shouli (*Ophiocephalus striatus*), Bacha (*Eutropichthes vacha*), Rita (*Rita rita*) Balm (*Rynchobdella aculeata, Mestacembalus armatus*) etc

(b) *Ornamental Fishes* Delhi fish fauna provides a very good collection of different fishes which could be used as pets Though these fishes are also eaten but can serve as good looking acquaria fishes These are, Gaurami (*Colisa fasiata*), Billi (*Botia lohachata*) Glass fish (*Ambasis nama Ambasis ranga* Punti (*Puntius sp*) Chela (*Chela bachula*), young ones of Kalbons (*Labeo calbasu*), young ones of Balm (*Rynchobdella aculeata, Mestacembalus armatus*), (*Esomus dendricus*) etc (*Labuca atpar*), (*Mystus tingara*), (*Alia coila*) etc

(c) *Miscellaneous Fishes* The fishes other than the above described are (*Labeo gonius*), (*Labeo dero*), (*Labeo pengusia*), (*Puntius sarana*), (*Puntius sophore*), (*Puntius conchonius*), (*Puntius ticto*), (*Puntius ambassis*), (*Crossocheilus latius pungabensis*), (*Amblypharyngodon mola*), (*Aspidoparia morar*), (*Rohtee cotio*), (*Barlius vagra*) (*Psilorhynchus belitora*), (*Gadusia chopra*), (*Xenentodon cancila*), (*Amphipnous cuchia*), (*Nemachilus corica*) (*Nemachilus montanus*), (*Namachilus zonatus*), (*Ompak bimaculatus*), (*Mystus cavasius*), (*Mystus aor*), (*Clupisoma garna*), (*Begarius begarius*) (*Gaguta cenia*), (*Glyptothorax, telchita*), (*Chana Gachua*) (*Chana Marulius*), (*Glossogobius giuris*), (*Mugil gorsula*), (*Mugil cascia*) (*Notopterus chitala*), (*Notopterus notopterus*) The fishing is done throughout the year, except late June to September, being the spawning season Fishing is usually carried out by cast nets, drag-nets, hand-nets and hogs (combination of net and trap) Besides, the rod and line and long line are also in use The best known fishing ground is at Okhla where the river Yamuna ensures deep water and the collection of food for fish. Mud fishing is done for Shouli, Balm etc. in the stagnant water in numerous shallow ponds and lakes of Delhi

Molluscans

Molluscan fauna includes the fresh water mussel (*Lammellidens*), apple snail (*Pila*), other common snails (*Limnaea truncatula pianorbis*) and the garden slug.

Arthropods

Amongst the Arachnids julmandal (*Galeodes sp*) scorpions (*Buthus* and *Palamnaeus*) are fairly abundant. The isopods (*Oniscus*), centipedes (*Scolopendra*), millipedes (*Thuropygus*) and spiders (*Epeira*) are very common in Delhi The insects commonly occurring are crickets (*Gryllus*, *Gryllodes* and *Gryllotalpa*), cockroaches (*Periplanet and Blatta*), blister beetles (*Melve* and *Mylabris*), the lady bird beetles (*Coccinella* and *Chilomones*), the beetles (*Cicindella* and *Scarabeus*), the earwig (*Labidura*), bugs (*Lethocerus*, *Bagrads* and *Chysocharis*), dragon flies (*Pantala* and *Crocothemis*), white ants (*Odontotermis* and *Coptotermis*), the flies (*Musca tabanus* and *Calliphora*), the mosquitoes (*Ades*, *Anopheles* and *culex*), the saw fly (*Athalia*), wasps (*Vespa* and *Polistes*), the ants (*Comporaotus* and *Solenopsis*), the aphids (*Aphis* and *Rhopalosiphum*), the butterflies (*Papilio*, *Dansis* and *Pleris*), the moths (*Daphnis*, *Acries* and *Acherontia*) and the ant-lion (*Myrmeles and Culex*) Some of the most important insect pests, which cause severe damage to the cultivation are enumerated below

Tope shoot-borer (*Scirpophaga nivella*), stem borer (*Chilo zonellus*) (*Chilotrea infuscatellus*), (*Diatraea auricilia*), (*Pyrilla perpusilla*), black aphid (*Toxoptera greminum*), red pumpkin beetle (*Aulacophora foveicollis*), fruit fly (*Dacus cucurbitae*), mustard saw fly (*Antholia proxima*), cabbage butterfly (*Pieris brassicao*), pink boll worm (*Pectinophora gossypiella*), dusky cotton bug (*Oxycareaus hyalinipennis*) red cotton bug (*Dysdercus keeingli*). leaf hooper (*Idiocerus clypeahs*) and mealy bug (*Drosicha mangiferae*) The common grain pests (*Trogoderma*, *Rhizopertha*, *Bruchus* and *Sitophilus*) are responsible for the heavy destruction to the food grains in godowns and other places where they are stocked

Annelids

Of the annelidan fauna specially important are earth worms (*Pheritima*, *Eutyphoes* and *Lampito*) the land leech (*Haemadipse*) and the common leech (*Hirudinaria*)

Helminthes

Helminthes fauna of Delhi is very common occuring in different groups of animals including man and domestic animals Round worms (*Ascaris lumbricoides*) pin worms (*Enterobius vermiculaties*), and the hook worms (*Ancylostoma duodenale*) are very common in man Hook worm infection forms the main reservoir in the persons from hills. Guinae worm or naharway (*Dracunculus medinensis*), which was formerly reported from Rajputana, is now available here. Animals killed in the

local slaughter houses are heavily infested with tape worms (*Moniezia expansa, Moniezia benedeni, Avitellina lahorea* and *Stilesia globipunctata*) in the intestine and with flukes (*Fasciola gigantica* and *Fasciola indica*) occuring in the liver causing "liver rot". Pork tapeworm (*Taenia solium*), beef tapeworm (*Taenia Saginata*), hydated cyst (*Echinococcus granulosus*) and Acanthocaphala (*Echinorphynchus gigas*) are of common occurrence Shinghara fluke (*Fasciolopsis buskii*) and Turbellarian (*Placocephalus kewensi*) are also reported The cats and rats are commonly infected by *Taenia taeniformis* The dogs, wolf, jackals are infected by *Dipylidium caninum* Hymenolepid forms are of common occurrence in the birds of Delhi along with *Cotugnia sp* and *Raillietina*

Coelenterates

Coelenterate fauna consists mainly of *hydra vulgaris* and *hydra oligactis* which is available in the ponds and puddles where vegetation is in abundance

Porifera

The fresh water sponge (*Spongilla*) is available in ponds and lakes

Protozoa

The habitat affords fair facilities for thriving in fresh water soil and parasitic representatives of different groups of protozoa The ciliates like paramecium (*P caudatum, P aurelia, P bursalia*), *Stylonchia Euplotes colpoda Chilodonella dubium*, *Peritrichous ciliates* (*Vorticella epistylis Carchesium*) parasitic ciliates (*Opalina, Nyctotherus balantidium*) suctorian forms (*Acineta podophrya*) are fairly common The sporozoa are represented by *Plasmodium Monocystis* and *Eimeria* The rhizopodes (*Amoeba proteus A lobosa A pelomyxa Actinosphaerium Arcella* and *Diffugia*) are occurring abundantly The parasitic rhizopodes (*Entamoeba coli E histolytica*) heavily infested man The flagellates (*Euglena volvox* and *Ponderinia*) are also fairly common Parasitic flagellates (*Trichomonos* in termites. *Trayoanosoma lewisi* in rats and *Giardia* in man) are heavily infesting their hosts

Climate

The climate of Delhi is mainly influenced by its inland position and the prevalence of air of the continental type during the major part of the year Extreme dryness with an intensely hot summer and cold winter are the characteristics of the climate Only during the three monsoon months July August and September—

does air of oceanic origin penetrate to this district and causes increased humidity, cloudiness and precipitation. The year can broadly be divided into four seasons. The cold season starts in late November and extends to about the beginning of March. This is followed by the hot season which lasts till about the end of June when the monsoon arrives over the district. The monsoon continues to the last week of September. The two post-monsoon months—October and November—constitute a transition period from the monsoon to winter conditions.

Rainfall

Records of rainfall are available for Delhi for over 90 years. Data for shorter periods are available for seven more stations in the district. As the rainfall data of stations other than Delhi are found to be not quite reliable, the information for Delhi alone have been given in Table 1. The rainfall over Delhi is quite representative of that over the district. The average annual rainfall over Delhi is 660.1 mm. The rainfall in the district increases from the south-west to the northeast. About 74 per cent of the annual rainfall is received during the monsoon months. The rest of the annual rainfall is received as winter rains and as thunderstorm rain in the pre and post-monsoon months. The variation of rainfall from year to year is large. During the fifty year period 1901 to 1950, 1933 was the year with the highest annual rainfall which amounted to 232 per cent of the normal. In 1929, the year with the lowest rainfall, only 40 per cent of the average annual rainfall was recorded. During the same fifty year period rainfall was less than 80 per cent of the normal in 13 years. Low rainfall occured consecutively for two years on three occasions. It will be seen from Table 2 that in 35 years out of fifty, the rainfall was between 400 and 900 mm.

On an average rain of 2.5 mm or more falls on 35 days in the year. Of these 2[illegible] days are during the monsoon months. Three to four days in June are rainy. In other months excepting November and the first part of December when it is practically rainless, rain falls on a day or two only in each month.

The highest rainfall in 24 hours amounting to 495.3 mm was recorded at Delhi on September 9, 1875.

Temperature

The only meteorological observatory in the district is at New Delhi. The temperature and other meteorological conditions recorded at this observatory may be taken as representative of those over the district. The cold season starts towards the latter half of November when both day and night temperatures drop rapidly

with the advance of the season. January is the coldest month with the mean daily maximum temperature at 21.3°C and the mean daily minimum 7.3°C. In the winter months during cold waves which affect the district in the wake of western disturbances passing across north India, minimum temperatures may sometimes go down to the freezing point of water. From about the middle of March, temperatures begin to rise fairly rapidly. May and June are the hottest months. While day temperatures are higher in May, the nights are warmer in June. From April the hot wind known locally as *loo* blows and the weather is unpleasant. In May and June maximum temperatures may sometimes reach 46 or 47°C. With the advance of the monsoon into the area towards the end of June or the beginning of July, day temperatures drop appreciably while the night temperatures remain high. In October, the day temperatures are as in the monsoon months but the nights are cooler.

Humidity

The air over Delhi is dry during the greater part of the year. Humidity is high in the monsoon months. April and May are the driest months with relative humidities of about 30 per cent in the mornings and less than 20 per cent in the afternoons.

Cloudiness

During the monsoon especially in July and August, skies are heavily clouded and often overcast. In the rest of the year skies are clear or lightly clouded. But in the months of January, February and early March, skies become cloudy and sometimes overcast when the district is affected by western disturbances.

Winds

Winds are generally light during the post-monsoon and winter months. They strengthen during the summer and monsoon months. Except during the monsoon months, winds are predominantly from a westerly or northwesterly direction and tend to be more northerly in the afternoons. Easterly and southeasterly winds are more common in the monsoon months.

Special Weather Phenomena

April to June is the period with the highest incidence of thunderstorms and dust storms. Some thunderstorms give rise to violent squalls (*Andhis*). While some of the thunderstorms are dry, others are accompanied with heavy rain and less frequently with hail. Thunderstorms also occur in the winter months in association with western disturbances. Fogs, sometimes dense, occur in the winter months.

Tables 3, 4, 5 and 6 give the data of temperature and humidity, mean wind speed and frequency of weather phenomena respectively for New Delhi.

TABLE 1

Normal and extremes of rainfall for New Delhi
(Period of data 1901–1950)

Months		Rainfall and No of rainy days	Highest annual rainfall as % of normal and years**	Lowest annual rainfall as % or normal and year**	Heaviest rainfall in 24 hours*	
					Amount (MM)	Data
January	a	20.8				
	b	1.8				
February	a	23.6				
	b	1.7				
March	a	12.[illegible]				
	b	1.[illegible]				
April	a	9.[illegible]				
	b	0.9				
May	a	9.7				
	b	1.3				
June	a	67.6	232	40	495.3	
	b	3.7	(1933)	(1929)		(Sep. 9, 1875)
July	a	186.2				
	b	9.0				
August	a	169.9				
	b	8.8				
September	a	134.9				
	b	4.9				
October	a	14.2				
	b	0.8				
November	a	2.0				
	b	0.2				
December	a	8.6				
	b	0.8				
Annual	a	660.1				
	b	35.2				

(a) Normal rainfall in mm.
(b) Average number of rainy days (days with rain of 2.5 mm or more).
*Based on all available data up to 1965.
**Years given in brackets.

TABLE 2

Frequency of annual rainfall of New Delhi
(*Data* 1901-1950)

Range in mm	No. of years	Range in mm	No of years
201—300 .	2	901—1000	4
301—400 . . .	6	1001—1100	2
401—500 . . .	4	1101—1200	0
501—600 .	8	1201—1300	0
601—700 .	8	1301—1400	0
701—800 .	10	1401—1500	0
801—900 .	5	1501—1600	1

TABLE 3

Normals of Temperature and relative humidity (New Delhi)

Month	Mean Daily Maximum Temperature	Mean Daily Minimum temperature	Highest Maximum ever recorded		Lowest Minimum ever recorded		Relative Humidity*	
							0830	1730
	°C	°C	°C	Date	°C	Date	%	%
January	21.3	7.3	29.4	1946 Jan 21	—0.6	1935 Jan 16	72	41
February	23.6	10.1	33.3	1941 Feb 26	1.7	1950 Feb 11	59	28
March	30.2	15.1	40.6	1945 Mar 31	4.4	1945 Mar 6	47	21
April	36.2	21.0	45.6	1941 Apr 29	10.7	1965 Apr 2	32	16
May	40.5	26.6	47.2	1944 May 29	17.5	1964 May 12	31	18
June	39.9	28.7	46.7	1945 Jun 17	18.9	1932 Jun 23	48	32
July	35.3	27.2	45.0	1931 Jul 1	21.6	1964 Jul 16	73	60
August	33.7	26.1	40.0	1945 Aug 12	21.2	1965 Aug 23	77	65
September	34.3	24.6	40.6	1938 Sep 16	17.3	1964 Sep 26	70	45
October	33.1	18.7	39.4	1951 Oct 17	9.4	1937 Oct 31	51	35
November	28.7	11.8	35.0	1913 Nov 5	3.9	1938 Nov 28	48	31
December	23.4	8.0	28.9	1959 Dec 15	1.1	1945 Dec 26	63	38
Annual	31.7	18.8					56	37

*Hours I.S.T.

TABLE 4

Mean wind speed in km/hr (New Delhi)

Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	June	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Annual
8.4	10.1	10.8	10.9	12.9	14.6	10.3	9.1	9.6	6.3	6.7	7.6	9.8

TABLE 5

Special weather phenomena (New Delhi)

Mean No of days with	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	June	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Annual
Thunder	1 5	1 7	3 0	3 0	5 0	5 0	7 0	8 0	4 0	1 3	0 4	0·7	40 6
Hail	0 1	0 1	0 4	0 1	0 1	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0·0	0 8
Duststorm . . .	0 0	0 0	0 5	1 0	3 0	3 0	0 5	0 0	0 1	0 3	0 0	0 0	8 4
Squall	0 3	0 4	1 0	1 6	3 0	2 0	1 5	1 0	0 6	0 1	0 1	0·0	11·6
Fog	3 0	0 5	0 1	0 0	0 7	0 2	0 1	0 0	0 0	0 1	0 6	1 7	7 0

TABLE 6

Temperature, Humidity and Rainfall in Delhi
(Monthly averages-Calender months)

Year	Mean Max Temp °C	Mean Minimum temperature C	Mean Temp °C	Mean R H at 1730' hrs (IST)	Rainfall actual (average) Inches	MM
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1951 . .				55	1.14	
1952 . . .				54	1.69	
1953 . . .	.			53	1.50	
1954 . .				56	2.13	
1955 . . .		.		43	2.33	
1956 . . .	42	8	25	43	2.07	53
1957 . . .	40	8	24	44	2.54	65
1958 . . .	41	9	25	44	2.22	74
1959 . . .	41	8	25	42	1.50	38
1960 . . .	40.7	6.5	23.6	41	2.52	64
1961 . . .	39.1	5.6	22.4	46	3.77	96
1962 . .	39.9	5.5	22.7	42	1.85	47
1963 . .	38.9	4.5	24.5	46	3.85	98
1964 . . .	40.0	5.4	22.7	42	4.5	115
1965 .	31.6	18.1	24.9	38	2.3	58
1966 . .	31.7	18.4	25.1	37	2.4	62
1967 . .	30.9	18.4	24.6	48		88
1968 .	31.3	18.2	24.8	39		59
1969 . .	32.1	19.5	25.8	40		57
1970 . .	31.3	19.0	25.1	44		62

CHAPTER II

HISTORY

DELHI ranks as one of the most ancient and historic cities of India. It has been the Capital of mighty Empires and powerful kingdoms. It has seen the ebb and flow of many a civilization. Its lofty towers, stately palaces, grand mosques and temples, splendid mausolea and majestic forts have excited the envy and wonder of the world. Its wealth and splendour have acted as a magnet in attracting the cupidity of rapacious invaders. Several times the city was sacked but out of the ashes, like the phoenix, arose still another city more resplendent than the previous one. The ruins of Delhi mark the sites of various cities—both ancient and medieval—each of which has a history of its own.

Popular tradition mentions only seven cities of Delhi but if the smaller towns and strongholds are taken into account, the number increases to 15. The area which embraces these sites extends from Shahjahanabad, the old Delhi of today, to the city of Rai Pithora which is marked by the celebrated Qutb Minar.

Indraprastha

The earliest reference to a settlement at Delhi is to be found in the famous Epic, Mahabharata, which mentions a city called Indraprastha built along the bank of the river Yamuna between the more modern Kotla of Firuz Shah and Humayun's Tomb. It was also known under the alternative names of Yognipura and Khandavaprastha, the latter owing to its association with forest where it came to be established. The forest, known as Khandavaranya, came into the possession of the Pandavas after the division of their ancestral estate by Dhritarashtra, their blind uncle. This primeval forest, according to the Epic, was a frightful place, full of thorns and prickles, encumbered with the crumbling ruins of a deserted city which were the abode of birds, beasts and infested with thieves and wicked men. It further relates how the Pandavas led by Lord Krishna, expelled or subdued the savage Nagas and Takshakas, the original inhabitants of the place, cleared the forest and built the city of Indraprastha. The Pandavas renovated the ruined city, built palaces and forts and renamed it 'Indraprastha' probably because it was "decked with innumerable white mansions" and looked like the mythical city of Amaravati — the

abode of the sovereign of immortals—Indra Its wealth and splendour drew the admiration of the world. The Epic calls it a "second heaven on earth" According to Cunningham, an eminent archeologist and numismatist, the date of the occupation of Indraprastha by Yudhishthira may be assigned to the 15th century B C

There is no direct evidence to identify Indraprastha city with Delhi but there is a good deal of circumstantial probability Indraprastha was one of the five Prasthas or extended places around which the great war of Mahabharata was fought The sites of four of these places are known—Panipat Sonepat Baghpat, and Tilpat, Delhi would obviously make a natural site for the fifth The area where the famous Purana Quila built by Humayun (1530-38, 1555-56 A D) and Sher Shah (1538-45 A D) stands, is believed to be the site of Indraprastha Similar antiquity is claimed for the Nigambodh Ghat, close to Salimgarh and the nearby temple of Nili Chattri where Yudhishthira is said to have performed the Asvamedha Yaga Roughly speaking, Indraprastha at that time included the Meerut region in the north-east and parts of Kathiawar in the south-west Some scholars are of the view that Indraprastha was bound by Meerut in the north, Gadavarta in the south, Mathura in the east and Dwarka in the west

The city of Indraprastha retained its importance throughout th Epic period as it has been referred to as the scene of many important events It was here that Vajra, the son of Aniruddha was installed as the king of the Yadavas, who eventually settled here Indraprastha seems to have been one of the important cities of India during the Jataka period Surchi Jataka (No 489) takes note of Indapatta and Mithila which were seven leagues in extent while Varanasi the chief city of India, extended over 12 leagues How long Indraprastha enjoyed its imperial glory and why it was ultimately abandoned we do not know According to Bhagavata Purana however, Yudhishthira reigned long and gloriously at Indraprastha and was succeeded by thirty generations of the descendants of his brother Arjuna The last king of the line Kshemaka, is said to have been deposed by his minister, Visarwa, who usurped the throne Visarwa's descendants held the sceptre for 500 years and were succeeded by a dynasty of fifteen Gautamas or Gotamavanas, who were in turn followed by the famous dynasty of the Mauryas. According to another tradition, the Pandavas ruled there only for 36 years It happened one day that Yudhishthira saw a fly in his food and considered it to be a bad omen presaging the eclipse of the glory of family He therefore, transferred his court to Hastinapura, 60 miles away to the north-east of the present Delhi

Indraprastha was thus relegated to a second place in the empire and was placed under the charge of the only surviving son of Dhritarashtra. This tradition seems to be corroborated by the Buddhist tradition of the first and second centuries A.D., which refers to a line of Kaurava princes reigning in the old city.

Dilli

Dilli as the name of a place, seems to have been referred to for the first time during first and second centuries A.D. Ptolemy, the celebrated Alexandrine geographer, who visited India during the second century A.D., has marked in his map of India, 'Daidala' close to Indraprastha (Indrapat) and midway between Modura or Mathura and Batan Kasara or Sthaneswara (Thaneswar). The close proximity of Daidala to Indrabara and the curious resemblance of their names leaves one in little doubt about the existence of Delhi at that time. But surprisingly there is no reference of Indraprastha or Dilli in any of the works of the Greek writers, who chronicled the campaigns of Alexander the Great in the 4th Century B.C.

As regard the origin of the name, Cunningham, after a close scrutiny of a number of prevalent traditions regarding the foundation and name of the city of Delhi concurred with the tradition accepted by Firishta author of Tarikh-i-Firishta (compiled in the early 7th century A.D.) that Delhi derived its name from Raja Dilu or Dhilu of early times whose date is not definitely known. Raja Dhilu, according to this tradition, did not remain on the throne of Delhi for long. He was attacked and slain by Sakaditya, the ruler of Kumaon, who occupied his territory. Sakaditya, in turn, after a rule of 14 years, was overpowered by Satarahana or Salivahana, to whom the Saka Era is ascribed. The association of Salivahana with the Saka Era is no doubt untenable but the tradition referred to above, suggests that the reign of Raja Dhilu may be assigned to a period earlier than the beginning of the Christian Era.

Whatever the fact may be, it is fairly certain that Delhi was a city of little importance during the time of the Imperial Mauryas, whose capital was Pataliputra or Patna. Even when Ashoka, the third Maurya Emperor, (273-236 B.C.) began his campaign for the exposition and enforcement of the Law of Piety or Dharma and erected a large number of monolithic sandstone pillars bearing his moral precepts, he did not consider the old Pandava capital worthy of one of his exhortatory epigraphs, though nearby places like Meerut and Topra (near Ambala) were selected. The Chinese

piligrims, who visited the Buddhist shrines in India, including Mathura (390 and 645 A.D), do not mention Delhi at all. An inscription at Sheorkot (403 A D), however reveals that during the invasion of India by the Greco-Bactrian armies, the lands lying within the triangle of Delhi-Jaipur-Agra, were in possession of Arjunayanas, who were tributary to Samudragupta The Chinese pilgrim, Hiuen Tsang, who must have passed close to Delhi, for he retraced his steps from Mathura to Thaneswar had however, not said a word about the settlement of Delhi

Delhi was thus for several centuries little more than a hinterland under the Mauryas and the succeeding dynasties Remains of the Gupta period have been discovered at the site of Purana Qila and to the same period belongs the celebrated Iron Pillar now at the Qutb, which records the victory of a powerful monarch Chandra, believed to be the Emperor Chandragupta II (380-413 A D) who took the title of Vikramaditya Some scholars, however identify him with Chandravaraman, King of Pushkarana (Rajasthan) in the 4th century A D who was a contemporary of Samudragupta Either of the evidence is far from conclusive and the prince of the Iron Pillar remains a mystery But whoever might be the author of the Iron Pillar inscription the original findspot of the inscription not being the Qutb area, it is difficult to associate Delhi with the activities of any of these monarchs The transference of the Pillar to Delhi at a later period however, shows that the place was increasingly growing in importance as a seat of political power

The Tomaras

The more reliable tradition is that Delhi was founded in 736 A D by the Tomaras, a clan of the Rajputs, whose kingdom bordered those of the Chahamanas of Sakambhari on the east. The Pehowa inscription of the Prathihara King Mahendrapala I. mentions that the Tomaras ruled over the Hariyana country with Dhillika as their capital Another inscription (1328 A D) found in the village Sarban five miles south of modern Delhi, contains a sketch of the history of Delhi from the earliest times till the date of the inscription i e the reign of Muhammad bin Tughluq (1325-51 A D) Dilli according to this inscription was founded by the Tomaras the Tunvar Rajputs who were superseded by Chahamanas or Chauhans The latter were defeated by Shihab-ud-din Muhammed Ghuri (1156-1205 A D). Cunningham's statement that Kanauj was the capital of the Tomaras before the invasion of Mahmud of Ghazni is not supported by any tangible evidence.

Prathihara Bhoja in the 9th century seems to have extended his kingdom up to Sirsa and Karnal districts in the Punjab and there is a reference to the Tomaras of Delhi under Vajrata having acknowledged his supremacy. Delhi seems to have assumed some importance under the three Tomara Princes . Gogga, grandson of Vajrata, and his two brothers—Puranaja— and Devaja— who gave up all political connections with Pehowa, which was reduced to the position of a pilgrimage centre Frequent wars have been referred to between the Tomaras and their neighbours Chahamanas of Sakambhari in the 10th and 11th centuries A Tomara chief named Rudra, probably a descendant of Gogga, lost his life in a battle with Chahaman Chandra the son of Guvak II Chandra's grandson, Sambaraja, who flourished in the third quarter of the 10th century, defeated the Tomara leader Salavana in the battle and captured a large number of soldiers It was about this time (977 A D) that Sabuktigin, Amir of Ghazni, led an expedition against Jayapala of the Sahi dynasty of Kabul, whose kingdom extended up to the Hindukush Northern India seems to have fully awakened to this great peril from the north-west, as soon afterwards (991 A D) Jayapala was able to organise a great confederacy of Hindu princes to stem the tide of Muslim invasion The King of Delhi along with the Rajas of Ajmer, Kalanjar and Kanauj responded to the call of Jaypala for united front against the Muslim invaders Later, when Mahmud (997-1030 A D), the son and successor of Sabuktigin, made plans in 1008 A D , to invade the Sahi kingdom then under Jaypala's son Anangpal, the latter sent ambassadors to all parts of Hindustan to appeal for help and assistance Most of the Rajas responded to the call for help including the King of Delhi, who sent a large contingent of troops in aid of the fighting forces On both these occasions the confederate armies were defeated and the efforts of the States of Northern India to put a check to Muhammadan incursions were not only unsuccessful but also proved to be a source of fresh trouble, for Mahmud now decided to deal with each of the confederating powers individually

It was probably this threat of Muhammadan invasions that led the Tomara ruler of Delhi, Anangpal, to build a fort, which is perhaps Lal Kot built in the 11th century at a place where the Quwwat-ul-Islam mosque now stands It is said to be the first known regular defence work in Delhi. Anangpal is also believed to have brought to Delhi and installed in the Lal Kot, the Iron Pillar which formed originally, as early as the fourth century, the standard of God Vishnu An inscription found at Chandravati (near Varanasi) in 1090 A D states that Chandradeva's dominion extended probably upto Indrasthanivaka or Delhi in the west But as the Delhi Museum inscription (1328 A D.) refers only to

the rule of the Tomaras and Chahamanas over Delhi and does not mention Gahadavalas who were obviously contemporary rulers, the authority of Chandradeva in this region must have been of an indirect nature The Tomaras seem to have continued to rule Delhi till middle of the 12th century when they were overthrown by the Chahamana King, Vigraharaja IV Visaldeva (1153-63 A D)

The Chahamanas

During the reign of Vigraharaja IV Visaldeva, the Chahamanas (Chauhans) established for the first time a big empire extending up to the Sivalik hills, in Saharanpur (U P) The greatest monarch of this dynasty was his nephew Prithviraja III (or Rai Pithora of Muslim historians) During his reign (1179-92 A D), the fort of Lal Kot was further strengthened by an exterior wall Prithviraja was the last Hindu ruler of Delhi In 1191 A D came the first invasion of Muhammad Shihab-ud-din of Ghur and though he was defeated by Prithviraja on this occasion, the Muslim adventurer returned the very next year with a reorganised force to avenge his defeat and routed the Hindus in the great battle of Taraori Prithviraja was captured and killed in cold blood while Delhi itself fell in the same year into the hands of Qutb-ud-din (1206-10 A D), one of Shihab-ud-din's generals The possession of Delhi in those days did not mean much as it was neither the capital of India nor an important Muslim town Lahore according to contemporary accounts, was the second capital of the Ghuri Empire, the first being Ghazni

The Slave Or Mamluk Dynasty

Delhi, however, rapidly grew in importance because of its strategic and central position, which was fully realised by the early Muhammadan rulers who made it the seat of their power The history of India in the subsequent years revolved around Delhi Qutb-ud-din, the real founder of the Turkish dominion in India, found time to leave an indelible mark on the history of Delhi After his victory over Hariraja, brother of Prithviraja, who had taken possession of Ajmer in 1194 A D, Qutb-ud-din erected the Quwwat-ul-Islam (Might of Islam) mosque from the materials of twenty-seven Hindu or Jain temples, which were demolished. He also started the construction of the famous Qutb Minar in about 1200 A D, probably as a tower of victory on the model of the one at Ghazni It was completed in 1220 A D by Iltutmish (1211-36 A D) his son-in-law and successor, who fromally made Delhi the capital of the Muslim Empire From this time onward "Delhi rises and Lahore begins to sink gradually" On the south-east side

of Lal Kot, Iltutmish added new quarter, sometimes dignified by the title of a new city In the old city, he further extended the size of the Quwwat-ul-Islam mosque by adding three more great arches on either side and enclosing the space thus formed His own tomb at one corner of the mosque is a magnificently decorated building. For his achievements in saving the infant Turkish kingdom from destruction, giving it for the first time a legal status and for perpetuating his dynasty by ensuring the succession of his children to the throne of Delhi Illtutmish occupies the first place among the rulers of this dynasty that occupied the throne of Delhi from 1206 to 1290 A D Sultana Raziya (1236-40 A D) who succeeded her father Iltutmish, is perhaps the only Muslim woman who sat on the throne of Delhi To her Delhi owes the Madrasa Nasiraya established in 1237 A D in memory of her brother Nasir-ud-din Mahmud Her reign was, however, short-lived She fell a victim to the intrigues of the nobles Her tomb, a rough grave, is to be found in the crowded locality of Bulbuli Khan, behind the Turkman Gate

Balban (1265-87 A D.), the next important ruler of the Slave Dynasty, ranks only second to Iltutmish for his achievements He restored internal peace, raised the prestige of the crown and protected the Sultanate from the Mongol attacks by making admirable arrangements for the defence of the north-western frontier He added dignity and splendour to his court by modelling it on the style of the old Persian monarchs and introduced Persian etiquette, ceremonial and festivities The destruction of the Khilafat of Baghdad made Delhi the asylum of many a Muslim crown and a refuge of the exiled princes

Balban's grandson Kaiqubad (1287-90 A D), son of Bughra Khan succeeded him under the title of Muiz-ud-din Soon after his accession, he shifted to his newly built palace on the bank of Yamuna around which the capital of Kilokari grew up His reign was marked by rivalries and intrigues between two groups of nobles at the court—the Turkish group, consisting of the old Balbani barons, was headed by the adventurer Aitmar Kachhan while Jalal-ud-din, a Khalji noble, led the non-Turkish party The latter clique abducted the infant king Shams-ud-din, the successor of Muiz-ud-Din The slave Dynasty came to an end with the deposition of Shams-ud-din by Jalal-ud-din Firuz, who ascended the throne in 1290 A D

The Khaljis

Jalal-ud-din, in spite of his admitted generalship and religious bent of mind, could not win the confidence of the people of Delhi and such was the public resentment over his accession that for a long time he could not venture to enter the metropolis and stayed in the unfinished palace of Kaiqubad at Kilokheri (Kilokari) for about a year It was only at the request of the people of Delhi, headed by Kotwal Fakhar-ud-din, that Jalal-ud-din eventually moved to the capital He beat off the Mongols from the gates of Delhi and took a large number of them as prisoners He converted them to Islam and assigned quarters in the capital This benevolent ruler was, however, treacherously murdered in July, 1296 A D, by his nephew, Ala-ud-din Khalji who entered the capital on October 29, 1296 A D After formal accession (1296-1316 A D), he took up his residence in the Kushak-i-Lal or the Crimson Palace (in the Qutb region), where Sultan Balban had resided. Ala-ud-din's reign "marks the peak of Delhi Sultanate and is an epoch in the history of Delhi" He shook off the fiction of the Khilafat and himself assumed the title of Khalifa Delhi henceforth came to be known as *Dar-ul-Khilafah* (seat of Khilafat) He subjugated Deccan and captured the Rajput strongholds of Ranthambhor and Chittor, thus bringing almost the whole of Indian sub-continent under his sway Thrice during his reign, the Mongols came up to the walls of Delhi and once even took Siri, his new city (close to Qutb region) It was with great difficulty that he was able to repulse these large hosts Suspecting conspiracy, he massacred some 30 000 Mongols who were allowed to settle in a suburb of Delhi during the earlier regime There was a rebellion in the capital itself where Haji Maula a disaffected officer, collected a large force of ruffians killed the Kotwal of Delhi and even laid siege to Siri He was, however, defeated and killed

Delhi was the first city to feel the impact of Ala-ud-din's stringent measures to bring down the prices of commodities of daily use He fixed the retail price of all such articles, wheat, for example, could be had at 7½ Jitals per maund, while sugar sold for 100 Jitals per maund Government grain shops were started in each *mohalla* for the convenience of the people In times of scarcity, rationing was resorted to and each household was given half a maund of grain per day These measures of Ala-ud-din proved quite successful and Delhi had not to face a famine during his reign The price of cloth was also fixed The cloth market was located in the building known as Sarai Adil inside Budaun

Gate. Malik Yaqub was the Inspector General of all markets in Delhi.

Delhi, which under the Slave kings, had been more of a fortified Turkish camp than a capital, now became the effective metropolis of India. Such literary figures as the poet Amir Khusrau and Amir Hasan of Delhi adorned his court, which attracted scholars from far and wide Ala-ud-din's architectural taste is manifested in his famous building Ala-i-Darwaza—an extension of the Qutbi Mosque (Quwwat-ul-Islam Mosque)- which is claimed to be the most beautiful and perfect specimen of early Turkish architecture In the new suburb of Siri he built a hall of a thousand pillars, which he took care to protect with lofty walls against the repeated Mongol invasions The construction of Hauz Khas, or the great tank, and the unfinished Minar which he had commenced to outmatch the Qutb Minar, stand as a testimony to his great designs

Political exigencies led Ala-ud-din to introduce certain social reforms, including the prohibition of wine His orders were harshly carried out in the capital All drunkards, gamblers, vintners and vendors of toddy and hemp were driven out of the city Large quantities of wine stored in the palace were ordered to be thrown away The nobles followed the Sultan's example so that the streets of Delhi were, to quote a contemporary historian, "filled with mud and mire as in the rainly season" In spite of the strict measurers of the Sultan, wine continued to be smuggled in leather bags and even illegally manufactured in the capital. Later on, the Sultan relaxed his orders and allowed wine to be taken in private Prostitution was also stopped and all professional women of the city were ordered to get married within the prescribed time The stoppage of immoral traffic was one of the most important measures of Ala-ud-din as it helped to preserve public morals.

After the death of Ala-ud-din, his six year old son Shihab-ud-din Umar was raised to the throne by Malik Kafur who managed to ignore the claims of the elder son Khizr Khan Kafur's influence did not last for more than 35 days and after his assassination, Mubarak Khan was appointed regent to Shihab-ud-din Umar Mubarak Khan ascended the throne on April 1, 1316 A D at a comparatively young age of 17 or 18 after blinding Shihab-ud-din Umar This youthful monarch gave himself to pleasure and the people followed in his footsteps. Most of the regulations of Ala-ud-din fell into disuse Prices of commodities

also rose high Bribery and corruption were openly indulged in The demand for beautiful girls and beardless boys, says Ziya-ud-din Barni (author of *Tarikh-i-Firuz Shahi*) made them a scarce commodity and their prices rose to 500, and sometimes even to 2,000 tankas Mubarak's arrogance and pride alienated the nobles and he antagonised even Shaikh Nizam-ud-din Auliya, the famous saint He fell victim to the intrigues of one of his favourite nobles Khusrau, a low caste Hindu convert, who ascended the throne (April 26, 1320 A D.) and took the title of Nasir-ud-din Khusrau Shah The Turkish Maliks and Amirs, however, would not brook the idea of an Indian Muslim usurping the sovereignty of kingdom Ghiyas-ud-din or Ghazi Tughluq, Governor of Punjab, placing himself at their head marched against Delhi Khusrau met the Governor's forces on the plain of Lohravat (a village now untraceable but then surely situated between Delhi and Hauz Khas) on Saturday September 6 1320 A D, but was defeated due to the disaffection of his own officers He was captured and eventually slain Ghiyas-ud-din Tughluq (1320-25 A D) thus became the founder of the Tughluq dynasty in 1320 A D

Among the eleven rulers of the Tughluq dynasty only the first three were interested in architecture and each added a new capital city in Delhi

The Tughluqs

Both dynastic pride and the threat of Mongol invasion led Ghiyas-ud-din early in his reign to fix the foundation of a fortified town Tughluqabad five miles to the east of the old city in a highly defensive position on the edge of the rocky hills, which stretch from Badarpur to Faridabad His main palace (in this fortress)—all trace of which are now lost is said to have been built of gilded bricks which shone so brilliantly in the sun that none could gaze steadily upon it Ibn Batuta, the African traveller, who spent some years at the court of his successor ascribes the Sultan's death to the complicity of Prince Juna Khan who later ascended the throne as Muhammad bin Tughluq (1325-51 A D) It is asserted that the Prince conspired with the saint Nizam-ud-din Auliya who was not on good terms with Ghiyas-ud-din, to destroy the latter who was away in Bengal to suppress a rebellion On hearing of the Sultan's threats to give him exemplary punishment on return, Nizam-ud-din Auliya is reported to have said "*Hunuz Delhi Dur Ast*" (Delhi is yet away) It was so arranged that the pavilion constructed outside the city to accord a reception to the returning monarch should give way when collided with

elephants burying Ghiyas-ud-din and his son Mahmud. Ziya-ud-din Barni tries to exonerate Muhammad Tughluq from this dastardly crime. Abul Fazal, however, pertinently remarks— "The haste with which the pavilion was erected and the eagerness to entertain the king therein have all the appearance of a guilty design."

Muhammad Tughluq has been described as "one of the most accomplished princes and most furious tyrants that ever adorned or disgraced human nature." He was the author of many a grandiose plan, such as the introduction of a token currency, and ambitious foreign policies, such as the conquest of Khorasan and a part of China, etc. Another such plan was the transfer of the capital from Delhi to Devagiri, renamed Daulatabad, 700 miles away in Deccan which, in his opinion, had a more central situation. The people of Delhi, who loved their city as their ancestral abode, were reluctant to leave their homes and hearths and showed their discontentment by throwing anonymous letters full of abuse into the audience hall at night. Muhammad was enraged and issued a proclamation ordering the residents to leave Delhi within three days. Ibn Batuta informs us that the order was strictly enforced. The Sultan caused a search to be made and found a blind man and a cripple unwilling to leave the city. The cripple was put to death while the blind man was ordered to be dragged to Daulatabad with the result that only one of his legs reached the new capital. In spite of the excellent arrangements made by the Sultan for the comfort of the travellers, the people of Delhi suffered tremendously. Many died on their way to the new capital and many after reaching the destination. As soon as the Sultan saw the failure of his project, he ordered the people to leave Daulatabad and to return to their homes in Delhi. He even asked the inhabitants of other cities to move to Delhi to re-populate it. But Delhi could only partially be populated. Ibn Batuta who visited Delhi during this time, found it to be 'empty and unpopulated.' The metropolis which, to quote Ibn Batuta, was a "vast and magnificent city, uniting beauty with strength, the largest city in India rather than the largest city in the entire Muslim world", did not regain its former glory for many years to come.

Firuz Tughluq (1351-88 A.D.), who succeeded Muhammad Tughluq, was essentially a man of peace and devoted his energies towards improving the lot of the people. He recompensed those who had suffered at the hands of his predecessor, reformed the criminal law, abolished vexatious taxes and spent money freely on public works. In order to solve the problem of food shortage in Delhi, he laid out 1200 fruit gardens in and around the capital.

which yielded an annual revenue of 1,80,000 tankas He also built a Madrasa in 1352 A D over which Ziya-ud-din Barni waxes eloquence. Firuz Tughluq is worthy of remembrance as the maker of canal from Yamuna to the dry country west of Delhi on which he founded the town known as Hisar Firuzah Two Asoka pillars—one found at Meerut and the other at Topra (Ambala)—were brought to Delhi under his orders and erected on the Ridge and Firuzabad respectively Firuzabad or Firuz Shah Kotla, his new capital about eight miles to the north of Qutb Minar, however, did not mark the transference of the capital to the new site It remained, as Lanepool calls it, "the Windsor of Delhi" Thus, there were two cities flourishing at the same time at a distance of a few miles—Old Delhi at Qutb and the new city at Firuzabad. Cunningham estimated the population of the new city to be about 1,50,000 while no less than 1,00 000 still resided in the old city at Qutb, thus making the total population of about a quarter of a million

Firuz's death in September, 1388 A D, was a signal for the provincial governors to throw off their allegiance to Delhi The Hindus ceased paying Jizya and rebellion was rampant by 1394 A D, in Koil, Etawah and Kanauj Within ten years five kings, the grandson and the youngest son of Firuz Tughluq, followed one another on the throne of Delhi like phantoms until at last during the reign of Mahmud Tughluq (1395-1413 A D), which lasted for 18 years, the forces of Timur burst upon the contending parties and overwhelmed them in a common ruin

Sack Of Delhi

After crossing the Indus and Jhelum, Timur captured Multan, Bhatnir and Kaithal He pillaged the cities and massacred the residents, and reached Delhi in the first week of December, 1398 A D He was opposed by the forces of Mahmud and his minister, Mallu Iqbal Before engaging in a battle with the Tughluq army, Timur got rid of the embarassing presence of one lakh Hindu prisoners by slaughtering them in cold blood The Delhi army fought bravely but was defeated and Mahmud fled to Gujarat At Hauz Khas, Timur received the homage of the citizens of Delhi who, headed by the Ulema, waited on the conqueror and begged for quarter Timur promised to spare the lives of the citizens Owing to the oppressive conduct of Timur's soldiers, however, the people of the city were obliged to offer resistance. Thereupon, Timur ordered a general plunder and massacre which lasted for several days Hundreds of people were made prisoners. The conqueror acquired immense riches Every soldier in his army

became rich overnight and there was "none so humble but he had at least 20 slaves." Timur also picked up some of the expert artisans of Delhi and sent them to Samarkand to build for him the famous Friday Mosque. After remaining in Delhi for a fortnight, Timur marched back, visited Firuzabad, crossed the Yamuna, reached Hardwar, and then proceeded along the Sivalik hills to Kangra plundering and sacking the town of Jammu. Timur left Delhi prostrate and bleeding, trade, commerce and other signs of material prosperity disappeared; the city was depopulated and ruined There was scarcity and severe famine in the capital and its suburbs In the words of the historian Abdul Qadir Badauni (author of *Muntkhab-ul-Tawarikh*) "those of the inhabitants who were left, died of famine and pestilence while for two months not a bird moved wing in Delhi."

For about three months after the departure of Timur, Delhi virtually remained without a Government and almost entirely destitute of inhabitants Nasrat Shah and Mahmud Shah, the rival monarchs, had fled to save their lives from the invader's fury Nasrat Shah returned to Delhi in 1399 A D, but was driven out by Mahmud's Prime Minister, Mallu Iqbal, who invited Mahmud to the throne in 1401 A.D The kingdom of Delhi had now shrunk to the dimensions of a petty principality, comprising the capital city and a few districts around it. Mahmud was unable to recover his lost territories and, after an ineffectual reign, died in 1413 A D, thus bringing to an end the Tughluq dynasty founded by Ghiyasud-din in 1320 A.D

The Sayyid Dynasty

The nobles of Delhi nominated Daulat Khan, an influential noble, to the throne, but he refrained from assuming royal dignity Khizr Khan, the Governor of Punjab, who had helped Timur and was a Sayyid, drove out Daulat Khan and founded the Sayyid dynasty in May, 1414 A.D The kingdom of Delhi at that time was flanked on the east by the the Sharki dynasty of Jaunpur, on the south by Malwa, and on the west by the revived Rajput States Khizr Khan maintained the independence of his kingdom against the incursions of the kings of Jaunpur and Gujarat, who wanted to annex Delhi Nothing of importance happened in the reigns of his three successors - Mubarak Shah (1421-34 A D.), Muhammad Shah (1434-45 A.D.) and Ala-ud-din Alam Shah (1445-50 A D.).

The Lodi Dynasty

In 1450 A.D., Bahlol Lodi, Governor of Punjab, seized Delhi by a coup and, for a time, restored the prestige of Delhi. He laid the foundation of Lodi dynasty. His main achievement was the conquest of Jaunpur, an important kingdom comprising Oudh, Varanasi, Bihar, and other territories. Bahlol died in 1489 A.D. and is said to have been buried at Roshan Chiragh, Delhi. He was succeeded by his son Sikandar (1489-1517 A.D.), who removed his capital to the neighbourhood of Agra and built a new city called Sikandrabad. The third and the last of the line, Ibrahim (1517-26 A.D.), tried to impose a rigorous discipline and strict ceremonial on his peers who resented these restrictions on their liberty and privileges. The tensions that followed culminated in a rebellion. This confused state of affairs afforded an opportunity to an ambitious adventurer, Babur, a descendant of Timur, to invade India. Ibrahim's forces were defeated in the battle at Panipat (1526 A.D.) and with this the rule of the Lodi dynasty came to an end. From Babur sprang the long line of Mughal Emperors, under whom Delhi reached the height of her glory.

The Mughals And The Sur Dynasty

Zahir-ud-din Muhammad Babur entered Delhi on April 24, 1526 A.D. Khutba was read in his name on April 27, three days later. He visited the local shrines including the tombs of Khawaja Qutb-ud-din Kaki, Ala-ud-din Khalji and Balban before he left for Agra, the capital of his predecessors - the Lodis. He felt grieved over the news that his son Humayun had ransacked the treasure-houses of Delhi and strongly reprimanded him. In his autobiography *Tuzuk-i-Baburi* Babur estimates the revenue of Delhi and Mian-Doab to be rupees 3 crores 69 lakhs and 50,254 tankas. Babur spent most of his time at Agra. Delhi seems to have continued as a provincial city during his reign. He died on December 26, 1530 A.D., leaving a large and unstable kingdom which extended from Kabul on the west to the borders of Bengal on the east. His son and successor, Humayun (1530-40 A.D., 1555-56 A.D.), however, wavered between Agra and Delhi as the choice of his capital though ultimately he thought it advisable to restore or build a fort, called Din-i-Panah, on the site of the ancient Indraprastha. The name, however, soon fell into disuse and the fort came to be known as Purana Qila.

The reign of Humayun is broken into two by an interlude of 15 years during which the Sur dynasty founded by the great Afghan monarch, Sher Shah, in or about 1540 A.D., established

its domination over most parts of northern India. The battles of Chausa (June 26, 1539 A.D.) and Kanauj (May 17, 1540 A.D.) decided the fate of Humayun, who had to take refuge in flight. Sher Shah became the ruler of India. Immediately after his accession in 1540 A.D., he took steps to improve the administration of Delhi He made additions to the Purana Qila and founded a city which extended from that fort to Kotla Firuz Shah as marked by its north and other gateways. One of these approaches, known as Khuni Darwaza, still stand in solitary grandeur on the road adjoining Maulana Azad Medical College. It was near this gate that Mirza Mughal and two other Mughal princes were shot dead by Capt. Hodson in 1857[1]. Inside the fort Sher Shah built two buildings—a lofty mosque which Fergusson thinks to be the "most perfect of his buildings" and Sher Mandal, traditionally used as a library, from the stairs of which Humayun slipped and met with his death on January 26, 1556 A.D The Khalji town of Siri seems to have been destroyed by Sher Shah in order to obtain building materials for the construction of these buildings. Sher Shah is, however, remembered by posterity, not for the buildings he constructed, but for his contribution in the field of civil administration which formed the basis of future development. After a brief reign of five years, this great ruler died while leading an expedition against Kalinjar in May, 1545 A D Sher Shah was succeeded by his only son Islam Shah or Salim Shah (May 1545-October 1553 A.D) Salim Shah added another landmark to the history of Delhi by building the fortress of Salimagarh on the bank of Yamuna, just opposite to the fortress of Din-i-Panah, as a protection against the threatened Mughal invasion Aurangzeb used it in later years as a prison house and confined one of his brothers there. The defence of the city was further strengthened by the addition of another wall around Delhi. Salim Shah was said to have transferred his capital to Gwalior

Under Muhammad Adil Shah, his successor (who ascended the throne in 1553 A.D), the Afghan empire virtually broke up. Ibrahim Khan, his brother-in-law, taking advantage of the disaffection of the nobles, took possession of Delhi and Agra but was driven out by Sikandar Shah, Governor of Punjab. Muhammad Adil Shah then sent his famous general Himu, to reoccupy Delhi. During this period of violence and anarchy, Delhi suffered terribly. A severe famine broke out which took a heavy toll of life. 'Jawar' could not be had even at one rupee per seer. People lived on wild herbs and roots and on oxen skins, which were slaughtered by rich

[1]According to another version the princes were killed near the Humayun Tomb.

persons. Thousands of people fell victim to a pestilence which broke out and wrought havoc. Meanwhile, Humayun, who was advancing to occupy Delhi, defeated the forces of Sikander at Sirhind (May 28, 1555 A D) and regained the throne of India

Humayun's position was, however, far from secure With 50,000 cavalry, 1000 elephants, 51 pieces of cannon and 500 falconets, Himu, the general of Muhammad Adil Shah, had arrived at Tughluqabad The Mughal Governor of Delhi, Tardi Beg, did not make any effort to hold Delhi and Himu took possession of the city, assuming the title of Raja Vikramjit He, thus became the first and the only Hindu to occupy the throne of Delhi during the Medieval period of Indian History However, before any decisive battle could be fought, Humayun died after a fall from the steep stairs of his library in the Purana Qila and his minor son, Akbar, was crowned Emperor of India at Kalanaur in the Gurdaspur District (1556 A D) Akbar's forces, led by Bairam Khan, his guardian, met those of Himu at Panipat (November 5, 1556 A D) Himu was defeated and slain and the victors occupied Delhi on November 6, 1556 A D

Akbar The Great

Within two years of his accession, Akbar (1556-1605 A D) was obliged to dispose of all the three Sur claimants to the throne There was no one else to contest his claim to the sovereignty of Hindustan. His dismissal of Bairam Khan, his early tutelage under his foster mother, Maham Anga, his wars in Rajasthan, Bengal and Khandesh which extended his kingdom from the Himalayas to the Narmada and from Hindukush to the Brahmaputra with the exception of few tracts here and there, his orderly administration, his policy of conciliation with the Hindus and his religious toleration are matters of general history

In the galaxy of great rulers, who enriched the Imperial traditions of Delhi, the great Emperor Akbar does not, however, occupy a prominent place This is only an accident which history can only refer to and pass by During Akbar's reign Delhi formed part of the *Suba* of Delhi comprising eight *sarkars*, sub-divided into 232 *paraganahs* It extended from Palwal to Ludhiana (165 kos) on one side, Rewari to Kumaon hills (140 kos) on the other, and from Hissar to Khizrabad on the third (130 kos). Its revenue was estimated by Abul Fazal to be about Rs 1,50,40,388. Abul Fazl's description of Delhi in his well-known work *Ain-i-Akbari* is curiously suggestive of its secondary importance during Akbar's reign. He describes Delhi only as one of the greatest cities of antiquity and gives an account of the historical towns built by

the former Emperors, from Yudhishthira to Sher Shah Suri, which lay in ruins.

Delhi, however, figures in the early years of Akbar's reign. An attempt was made on the life of Akbar in Delhi on January 11, 1564 A.D., when he was returning from a visit to the shrine of Nizam-ud-din Auliya and had just passed Maham Anga's newly built madrasa (which now no longer exists), he was hit in the shoulder by an arrow. The assailant, who was immediately cut to pieces was a slave (Fulad) who had been manumitted by Mirza Sharf-din Husain, an ally of Shah Abul Maali, a noble. This incident had far-reaching effects as far as the history of Delhi was concerned. Akbar, who, in pursuance of his policy of sulah-i-kul (universal peace) was engaged in his scheme of marrying certain ladies belonging to Delhi families, gave up the idea altogether after this incident, with the result that Delhi and its people never gained in the estimation of Akbar.

Jahangir

Fifty years' reign of Akbar was followed by the accession of his son, Jahangir, who reigned for 22 years (1605-27 A.D). Besides Agra, he made his headquarters sometimes at Lahore also. It is difficult to agree with Sir Thomas Roe's statement that the Emperor would reside either at Delhi or Agra for it is well known that Jahangir was particularly fond of Lahore, where he lies buried also. Delhi was one of the 15 provinces under Jahangir and a Subedar used to be in charge of it. A bubonic plague during his reign took a heavy toll of the lives in Delhi (1616-24 A.D.). The traveller found Delhi to be a ruined city. Delhi was but a town of secondary importance till the reign of Shahjahan (1628-57 A.D.), when this long interregnum in Delhi's imperial destiny was brought to an end.

Shahjahan

It was left to this great emperor and prodigal builder who ascended the throne in 1628 A.D., to restore Delhi to its former glory and prestige. The traditional view is that the narrow and congested streets of Agra, which did not provide sufficient space for his great state processions, and the reluctance of the inhabitants to let the Emperor widen them by razing some of their buildings, led Shahjahan to build his capital at Delhi, equipped with the citadel and royal residence. The construction of this palace, regarded by Fergusson as the most magnificent in the East—perhaps in the world—commenced in about 1638 A.D., and was completed after about ten years in 1648 A.D. Shahjahanabad, the new city, soon grew around it with a number of fine places built

by the nobles and merchants Shahjahan also built the famous Jama Masjid of Delhi, which is said to be one of the largest mosques in India To build the walls of his capital, Shahjahan pulled down what was left of Firuzabad and the city of Sher Shah Suri. Some of these buildings still needed final touches when the Emperor thought of celebrating the final establishment of the Imperial Capital at Delhi (April 8, 1648 A D) The famous Peacock Throne was brought from Agra and officers were summoned from far off lands to witness the splendour of the occasion During the remaining years of his reign, Shahjahan constantly remained at Delhi except for a short while in December, 1656 A D, when a severe epidemic broke out and the Emperor was obliged to spend his time outside at Garhmukteswar and Faizabad In 1657 A D, Shahjahan fell ill and was taken to Agra by his eldest son, Dara Shikoh. Shahjahan was deposed in 1658 A D, by his youngest son, Aurangzeb, who had emerged triumphant out of the struggle for power among the sons of the Emperor

It was in Shahjahan's reign that the power and the wealth of the Mughal Empire and the splendour of its court reached their zenith and naturally Delhi became the premier city in India, in fact in the whole of Asia The old cities of the Qutb region disappeared altogether but there is reason to believe that the city of Humayun—Din-i-Panah—continued to shelter a large population for another hundred years and became the old Delhi of the day in distinction to the new city of Shahjahanabad

Aurangzeb

Delhi also witnessed the tragic end of Dara Shikoh, heir-apparent of Shahjahan The war of succession ended in a victory for the crafty Aurangzeb Dara was betrayed into Aurangzeb's hands by Malik Jiwan, the Afghan chief of Dadar whose life once he had saved The captive prince and his family were brought to Delhi and lodged at Khawaspura, now a village three miles south of Delhi In order to convince the people of Delhi, who were sceptical about the capture of the real Dara, and to disgrace his former rival, Aurangzeb (1658-1707 A.D) issued orders for a parade of the princes in a military procession through the main thoroughfares of the city of Shahjahanabad Dressed in coarse and dirty clothes and seated on a female elephant, the captive princes with their feet enchained and the slave Nazar Beg, with a naked sword sitting behind them, made a very pitiable sight Bernier, an eye-witness of this ignominous show sais, 'The crowed assembled upon this disgraceful occasion was immense and every where I observed the people weeping and lamenting the fate of Dara

in the most touching language .From every quarter I heard piercing and distressing shrieks for the Indian people have a very tender heart; men, women and children wailing as if some mighty calamity had happened to themselves." However, no attempt was made to save the beloved princes and the procession, after passing through Chandni Chowk and Sadulla Khan's Bazar, returned to Khawaspura The following day, however, when the newly created peer, Malik Jiwan, and his party were being conducted through the city, the pentup wrath of the people of Delhi burst forth against the traitor Khafi Khan, the author of *Murtakhab-ul-Lubab* writes "The idlers, the partisans of Dara, the workmen and people of all sorts (literary, traders), inciting each other, gathered into a mob, and assailing Jiwan and his companions with abuse and imprecations, they pelted them with dirt and filth, and clods and stones, so that several persons were knocked and killed, and many were wounded Jiwan was protected by shields held over his head and he at length made his way through the crowd to the palace They say that the disturbance on this day was so great that it bordered on rebellion If the kotwal had not come forward with his policemen (to suppress the rising), not one of the Malik Jiwan's followers would have escaped with life" This incident however, only hastened the doom of Dara as the next day he was slain by the orders of Aurangzeb His dead body was placed on the back of an elephant and exhibited in every bazar and lane of the city of Delhi

Not many years later, the people of Delhi were presented a contrast by the royal procession which paraded the streets of Delhi on the grand entry of Aurangzeb (May 12 1659 A.D) after his successful campaigns of Khajwah and Ajmer. Jadunath Sarkar has given a graphic description of it The procession started from Khizarabad a suburb of Delhi headed by a band followed by a long file of huge elephants, richly caparisoned in gold and silver with golden bells and silver chains dangling from their bodies. Each carried on its back an imperial standard of polished belts slung from a poll as ensigns of Turkish royalty Then came horses of Arab and Persian breed, their saddles decorated with gold, their bridles set with jewels and behind them were marshalled female elephants and dromedaries Columns of infantry consisting of musketeers and rocketmen carrying flashing blades followed next Behind them, surrounded by vast crowds of nobles and ministers, was the royal elephant with a golden throne strapped to its back on which sat Aurangzeb. At his right, left and rear, rode troops in due order. This procession was long remembered by the citizens of Delhi as a unique spectacle.

Another event of the reign of Aurangzeb was the execution at Delhi of the Sikh Guru Tegh Bahadur in 1675 A D, when he refused to embrace Islam One of the Guru's crime in the Emperor's eye was the style of address adopted by his disciples who had begun to call him *Sacha Padshah* or the true king which was capable ot two-fold interpretation It might be applied in a spiritual or a literal sense The trunk of the banyan tree under which according to tradition, Guru Teg Bahadur was beheaded in 1675 A D., can still be seen within the precincts of the Gurdwara Sis Ganj in Chandni Chowk

Decline Of The Mughal Empire

Delhi maintained its importance during the reign of Aurangzeb though the Emperor spent most of his time in fighting the wars against the Marathas and the kingdoms in the Deccan From the death of Aurangzeb began the rapid decline of the Mughal Empire There were quick successions to the throne about which the struggles were unceasing and in which Delhi suffered much and often Azam Shah, Aurangzeb's second surviving son, ascended the throne on March 14, 1707 A D but his reign did not last more than three months and ten days He was defeated and killed in a battle at Jaju (between Agra and Dholpur) in June, 1707 A D, and was succeded by Bahadur Shah who could hardly set his foot in the Red Fort as he remained constantly on the move trying to pacify the troubled country Bahadur Shah was a man of mild temper, learned, dignified and generous to a fault He treated the late Emperor's adherents with generosity and appointed Asad Khan as *Wakil-i-Mutluq* in addition to his office of the Subadar of Delhi He was able to maintain the dignity of the empire He died on February 27 1712 A D, and was succeeded by his son Jahandar Shah (March 29, 1712 A D)

Under Jahandar Shah (1712 A D), Delhi fell under misrule Lal Kunwar, the concubine, who had been dignified with the title of Imtiyaz Mahal, was the power behind the throne Her brothers and relations swaggered through the streets committing every sort of outrage. The Emperor gave himself to drinking and debauchery. He ordered illuminations to be held in the capital thrice a month So much oil was used in these illuminations that its price rose to half a seer per rupee Clarified butter was then substituted for oil but it also became unprocurable Grain too became very dear and could not be had for more than eight seers for a rupee This Emperor, aptly called the "Lord of Misrule", was strangled to death by his nephew—Farruksiyar, who entered Delhi in a procession on February 12, 1713 A.D The head of

Jahandar Shah was carried on the point of a long bamboo held by an executioner seated on an elephant, his body was laid across on another elephant. Farrukhsiyar himself rode on an elephant with Ibad Ullah Khan (Mir Jumla) seated behind, waving a peacock fan over his head

Farrukhsiyar proved to be cowardly, contemptible and strong neither for evil nor for good The most important event of his reign (1713-19 A.D) was the execution at Delhi of the Sikh Guru Banda, who had surrendered to the Mughal Governor of Lahore after a heroic resistance against heavy odds (December 17, 1715 A D) The captive Guru and his 740 followers were brought to Delhi and paraded through the streets of the city in a most humiliating manner before execution The Sikhs maintained their dignity and showed no signs of dejection The Sikh Guru, along with 20 or 30 chief mean was sent to the prison while the rest of the prisoners were, handed over to Sarbarah Khan, the city kotwal for execution On March 15, 1716 A D, the work of execution began at the *Chabutra* or the chief police office and 100 persons were executed daily The Sikhs showed wonderful patience and strength of mind and none of them accepted the offer of Islam to save his life The rich khatris of the city offered large sums of money for the release of Banda but the offer was rejected. The Guru was taken to the shrine of Khwaja Qutb-ud-din Bakhtiyar Kaki (Qutb Minar), paraded around the tomb of Emperor Shah Alam and executed in a most heinous manner

Farrukhsiyar met his end at the hands of the Sayyid Brothers, Qutb-ul-mulk and Hussain Ali Khan, virtually the king makers, who took possession of the palace on February 27, 1719 A.D., and placed Rafi-ud-darajat, son of Rafi-ush-shah, on the throne. Rafi-ud-darajat was deposed on June 4, 1719 A.D, due to ill health and his elder brother, Rafi-ud-daulah, was placed on the throne. He died of diarrhoea on September 18, 1719 A.D, and was succeeded by Muhammad Shah, grandson of Bahadur Shah.

On Muhammad Shah's accession, the Hindu traders of Delhi found the time opportune for demanding the remission of Jizya, and they closed their shops as a remonstrance against this tax Raja Jai Singh and Raja Girdhar Bahadur of Avadh pleaded with the Emperor for the remission of the Jizya. The Emperor acceded to their request and abolished the poll tax permanently, although it was said to have yielded four crores of rupees from the whole of the empire.

It was during Muhammad Shah's reign (1719-48 A D) that the Marathas under Baji Rao appeared near Kalkaji an ancient place of worship, about six miles south of the city, on April 9, 1737 A D In order to extort concessions from the Mughal Emperor, Baji Rao desisted from burning the suburbs and rested at Talkatora, which was then known as Muhammadabad The Mughal forces under Amir Khan, one of the nobles, fought battle with the Marathas at a place near Talkatora The Marathas were victorious Six hundred Muhammadans were killed and wounded and 2,000 horses seized Baji Rao did not sack Delhi and retired as the Mughal forces under the Wazir were preparing for another battle.

On March 8 1729 A D, the shoe-sellers riot took place at Delhi which throws light on the turbulent state of affairs in the capital and is also important "as conducing to the downfall of the groups of palace favourities," whose influence was all powerful with the Emperor during the first 12 or 13 years of his reign It was the month of Shravana, which is devoted to the festivities, and squibs were being let off in the streets One of these fell on the palki of Subh Karan, a jeweller belonging to the Imperial establishment, and a favourite of the powerful Roshan-ud-daulah burning a hole in his darbar dress This incident took place near the Chowk of Sadullah Khan where on both sides of the roads were shops of shoe-sellers An attendant of Subh Karan who was accompanying his master, was disarmed by the shoe-sellers as a result of his protest Subh Karan was highly enraged and on reaching home sent back the attendant along with some other persons to chastise the assailants They got hold of a young boy and nearly beat him to death One of the elders Haji Hafiz who came to the rescue of the boy, received a sword cut and fell down dead Now the shoe-sellers rose in a body and swore that until the murderer and his master Subh Karan were killed the body should lie there unburied Subh Karan had in the meanwhile, taken refuge with his master, Sher Afghan Khan Panipati, the Lord Chamberlain, who refused to hand him over to the mob Hearing of the disturbances, the Emperor sent the Wazir, and Roshan-ud-daulah to restore order Sher Afghan also followed. There was a free fight between the followers of Roshan-ud-daulah and Sher Afghan on one side and the shoe-sellers and their sympathisers on the other Order could be restored only with great difficulty

Sack Of Delhi

While these internal dissensions went on, Nadir Shah the Emperor of Persia, who had already crossed over into India, defeated the Indian troops at Karnal on February 24, 1739 A.D., and sent his agents to take possession of Delhi Haji Fulad Khan, the capable kotwal of the city, had taken effective measures to prevent any panic or outbreak of lawlessness and endevoured to put the city into a state of defence The gates of the city had been closed but the Governor, Lutfullah Khan, had to open them when shown a letter from Emperor Muhammad Shah, who had surrendered to the invader Lutfullah Khan had no alternative but to hand over the keys of the fortress, the treasury and the store houses to Nadir Shah's messengers Nadir Shah entered Delhi in triumph The streets were lined with troops and the procession was headed by a hundred elephants on each of which several *Jazavirchis* were seated Nadir Shah took up his quarters in the palace built by Shahjahan near the Diwan-i-Khas while Muhammad Shah occupied a building close to the Asad Burj Next day, which happened to be the Muslim festival of *Id-uz-zuha*, the Khutba was read in the name of Nadir Shah and coins were struck

In the afternoon the rumour spread that Nadir Shah had been imprisoned and the Indians encouraged by this fell upon the Qizilbash soldiers in the narrow streets of Delhi killing many of them Some of the Persian mounted military police had been sent to open the grannaries in Paharganj and to settle the price at which the corn was to be sold They were attacked and killed by the infuriated crowd Hundreds of Persian soldiers were cut down by the soldiers of Sadat Khan's army The Emperor and the nobles did not bother to take any steps to stop the massacre even when they were informed about it Some 3 000 Qizilbash troops were said to have lost their lives Nadir Shah refused to believe the first report of the attack, but when two of the messengers sent to ascertain the truth were killed, he realised the gravity of the situation and despatched a force of 1 000 *jazavirchis* to quell the rioters but due to darkness and the smallness of their number nothing tangible could be done Next morning, Nadir Shah with a strong escort, rode through the streets of Delhi to the Roshan-ud-daulah mosque (Sonehri Masjid) in the middle of Chandni Chowk opposite to the Police Station On reaching the mosque Nadir Shah mounted the roof and after having ascertained in what quarters of the city the attack on his men had been perpetrated, he ordered his soldiers to leave no person alive wherever a Qizilbash had been killed

At 9 a m , the Persian troops began to slaughter the people of Delhi The soldiers forced their way into the shops and houses in the doomed portions of the city, killing the male occupants and plundering whatever they could lay their hands on The women were dragged into slavery The money-changer's bazar, shops of the jewellers and merchants were all looted and a large number of buildings were set on fire and destroyed Some resistance was offered by the jewellers, money-changers and rich shop keepers, who, headed by the court physician, took up arms in desperation but were overpowered and slain The massacre went on for six hours and it was stayed only at 3 p.m when, on the pleadings of Nizam-ud-malik and Qamar-ud-din Khan, Nadir Shah ordered his soldiers to refrain from further slaughter It is difficult to give the number of persons who lost their lives on this terrible occasion The estimates range from 8,000 to the fantastic figure of 4,00,000 Von Orlich, the German traveller, who visited Delhi in 1843 A D , mentions the figure to be 30,000 Jadunath Sarkar puts the number to be about 20,000 To this number may be added several hundred persons mostly women who committed suicide Strong punitive measures were also taken against the people of the Sarai Ruhela Khan and Mughalpura, who had killed some Persian troops The streets of Delhi were littered with corpses which Nadir Shah ordered to be collected on the roads and other open spaces and burnt without any distinction of caste or creed All approaches to the city were sealed and ingress and egress of citizens were prohibited Famine broke out and it was only after a lamenting deputation of the citizens of Delhi had waited on Nadir Shah that the people were permitted to go to Faridabad to buy provisions

Nadir Shah now turned his attention to extortion and plunder Contributions were levied upon all rich and poor, and extorted by every possible means Emissaries of the Kotwal, together with Persian Nasaqchis, went from house to house and forced the owners to help them in making inventories of all that they possessed in order to calculate their individual contributions A contribution of ½ of their property was fixed on all the well-to-do citizens who had escaped the massacre and a total of two crores of rupees was ordered to be raised from this source The floors of the houses were dug up in search of buried treasures The entire city was divided into five sectors and lists of different *mohallas* with names of inhabitants and the amount to be levied on each were prepared and handed over to the five nobles, the Nizam, the Wazir, Azim Ullah Khan, Sarbuland Khan and Murtaza Khan The aggregate value of all the money, jewels and other objects of value, which

Nadir Shah obtained from the Emperor, his nobles and people, must have been at least of the value of 70 crores of rupees The famous Peacock Throne and the invaluable 'Koh-i-Noor' diamond were among Nadir's precious spoils. Before he finally rode out of Delhi on May 16, 1739 A.D, after placing the crown of Hindustan on the head of Muhammad Shah, Nadir Shah took care to include in his train some of India's best carpenters, stone cutters masons, goldsmiths, and other craftsmen to help him in building in Persia a city on the model of Delhi, which had impressed him greatly

Anarchy In Delhi

The Mughal Empire, however, soon recovered from the shock of Nadir's invasion, its size and dignity remaining intact. Muhammad Shah still sat on his throne and Mughal authority was accepted as "legitimate throughout Hindustan except by the Marathas and half accepted even by them." Alivardi Khan had pushed back the Marathas from Bengal and the Nizam Asaf Jah had firmly established his power in Deccan The court rivalries, however continued unabated. They took a serious turn after the death of Muhammad Shah in 1748 A D His son and successor, Ahmad Shah (1748-54), was hardly 21 years of age at the time of his accession He was a good-natured imbecile without a personality of his own and was entirely dominated by others Safdar Jang, Subadar of Avadh, who had taken over as Wazir after the death of Qamar-ud-din soon grabbed all power and disposed off offices without any reference to the Emperor A sort of civil war ensued between Safdar Jang and the Emperor's party headed by Imad-ul-mulk, the Paymaster General and Intizam-ud-daulah (son of the late Wazir Qamar-ud-din) An attempt was made on the life of Safdar Jang near the canal in the Nigambodh quarter of the city when a sudden discharge "of light pieces, rocket and carbine from a shop at the right hand side struck his cortage" Safdar Jang escaped unhurt, though some of his attendants were fatally wounded The Wazir ordered all the houses from the steps of the canal to his own residence (Dara Shikoh's mansion) to be dismantled; the Hindu monks living on the river bank in the Nigambodh quarter since times immemorial were ejected This incident led to an open breach between the Emperor and his Prime Minister The city of Delhi suffered terribly during the civil war which lasted from March 17, 1753 to November 1753 A.D Safdar Jang invited the Jat ruler, Suraj Mal of Bharatpur and Rajendragiri, the Gosain, who plundered recklessly Old Delhi "the population of which was equal to or even a little larger than that of Shahjahanabad" The middle and the poor classess suffered most. The main centres of the Jat devastation were the grain market outside the Red Gate,

Sayyid Bara, Bijal Masjid, Tarkaganj and Abdullah Nagar (near Jaisinghpura) Only those places were safe which were within the range of the Imperial artillery In despair, the people removed whatever valuables they could carry and took refuge in the new city; all the bazars lanes and houses were crowded with the refugees The Emperor Ahmad Shah, ordered the Sahibabad Garden in Chandni Chowk and other gardens and houses belonging to the Government to be made available to the refugees These Jat ravages were long after remembered by the Delhi population under the name of *Jatgardhi*

Safdar Jang was ousted from power by Imad-ul-mulk and his party after six month's war during which the streets of Delhi witnessed many a battle Intizam-ud-daulah took over as Wazir The civil war left a huge debt which the Emperor found impossible to pay The officials and menials of the palace were unpaid for 32 months while the soldiers, numbering over 82 000 were starving The Rohillas under Najib Khan had helped the Imperial forces during the struggle and clamoured for their dues which amounted to rupees 15 lakhs They agreed to withdraw only when the revenues of the Ganga-Yamuna Doab and certain other villages were assigned to them in lieu of their services Immediately after crossing Yamuna, they occupied Patparganj and left it only when the residents paid Rs 35 000 Imad-ul-mulk and Intizam-ud-daulah soon fell out, the Emperor secretly helping the latter The Marathas responded to Imad-ul-mulk's request for help and Malhar Rao Holkar surprised the Imperial Camp at Sikandarabad (May 26 1754 A D) The Emperor fled to Delhi while the queen and princesses fell into the hand of the Marathas Holkar advanced to Delhi (May 31, 1754 A D) crossed the Yamuna and plundered Jaisinghpura the Katra of Nizam-ud-din Auliya's shrine and burnt the Khurma Mart With great difficulty, the Marathas could be persuaded to desist from further action Imad-ul-mulk now took over as Wazir Ahmad Shah was deposed and Muhammad Aziz-ud-din (grandson of Shah Alam Shah Bahadur I) was raised to the throne under the title of Padshah Alamgir II (June 2, 1754 A D)

Imad-ul-mulk, the Wazir, was confronted with the problem of finding money for paying the subsidy of 40 lakhs promised to the Maratha supporters as well as the salary of his own troops, the Emperor's artillery guards and personal servants which had fallen into arrears. The immediate dues of the Maratha and the Imperial soldiery exceeded one crore Imad-ul-mulk now restored to forced collections from nobles and public servants Some of the hostile nob-

es like Intizam-ud-daulah and the brother and sister of the ex-Queen-mother Udham Bai, were deprived of their Jagirs but it rought only Rs. 3 lakhs to the treasury. A levy was imposed on raders and artisans and the houses of the rich were guarded to revent their exit. A tumult arose in the city and the traders closed heir shops in protest The citizens assembled in their thousands inder the palace balcony clamouring for justice. The Emperor vas helpless but he threatened to starve himself to death unless he Wazir agreed to do justice to his people The Maratha insistence, however, led the Emperor to agree to the tax being levied on he rich The city was divided among the collectors and lists were nade of the houses to be taxed Not more than rupees one lakh could, however, be collected in this way. Another attempt to levy housands of rupees on the rich also did not yield any appreciable mount and the Wazir was compelled to call off the levy due to he appeals of the merchants and the traders to the Emperor. Anarchy reigned in Delhi and the Marathas were satisfied only when 22 villages in Saharanpur and some others in the Crown ands and privy purse estates were assigned to them

The Mughal army had not been paid their salary for three years with the result that they plundered the houses; the middle lasses - especially Hindu officials and traders—suffered most The rebellious soldiers seized the house-holders and their women and would only release them after the payment of a ransom. The Delhi Government had become totally bankrupt, all the provinces except Bengal had long ceased to send any revenue to the Central Government The Emperor's authority was now limited to a belt around the capital viz Upper Doab or the Meerut Division on the east and the Rohtak and Gurgaon Districts on the west. The Emperor had to hand over even the Crown lands, which had been reserved for the maintenance of his own family and for the salaries of his household servants, palace guards etc Some of these lands were taken possession of by nobles like Najib Khan, Madho Singh of Jaipur, etc So the Emperor's family suffered even to the point of starvation. The Emperor had been left with no conveyance for his State processions and had to walk on foot from the harem to the Jama Masjid for lack of amount This was the state of affairs in Delhi when the news came of the arrival of the Afghan invader, Ahmad Shah Abdali, near Sirhind. The Emperor and the nobles were completely bewildered and there began an exodus from the capital.

Abdali's Spoils Of War

The families of rich Hindus like Khushal Chand, Lachhmi Narain, Nagar Mal and Dewali Singh and many others migrated

to Mathura as it had remained safe during Nadir Shah's invasion. But now the Jats took advantage of this opportunity and demanded money from the fugitives at every outpost from Badarpur to Mathura The Wazir also issued orders that the flight of the panic stricken citizens should be stopped Many families were stranded a few miles south of Delhi. The Marathas would not allow them to return to Delhi unless they parted with their money and belongings It only added to the miseries of these refugees. The Abdali invaders demanded two crores of rupees in cash, the hand of the Emperor's daughter and all the land from Sirhind westwards as the price of his going back Abdali reached Narela on January 16, 1757 A D, where he was joined by Najib Khan Rohilla and penetrated to the northern suburbs like Wazirabad and Kali Pahari People from the old city, Mughalpura, and some other places outside the gates took refuge in Shahjahanabad, Old Fort, Arab Sarai or the shrine of Nizam-ud-din Auliya In the morning of January 19, 1757 A D, the desertion of Najib Khan, the fight of Wazir Imad-ul-mulk and the withdrawal of the last Maratha soldier left Delhi without a defender or caretaker On Friday, the 21st, Khutba was read in the name of Ahmad Shah Abdali at the Jama Masjid and Roshan-ud-daulah's mosque

Ahmad Shah Abdali visited Delhi on January 27 to see the arrangements for his State entry the next day He rode into the fort in procession on the 28th, his soldiers lining the routes on both sides and firing salutes from their matchlocks The Indians had been ordered to keep away from the route and were even prohibited from looking at the procession from the terraces of their houses All shops en route were ordered to be closed

Abdali was determined to realise the spoils of war as quickly as possible Intizam-ud-daulah was asked to secure two crores of rupees promised by him On his failure to do so his mother (Sholapuri Begum) was threatened that needles would be driven underneath her finger nails if she did not disclose the hidden treasures The threat proved effective as much of the treasure was revealed and seized In this manner, the invader was able to recover 16 lakhs in coins besides gold, silver and diamond-studded vessels While atrocities were committed and torture was used to extort ornaments and diamonds from the royal family, the common man was also not spared. A house to house levy in the entire city was ordered Yahiya Khan, son of Zakariya Khan of Lahore, was put in charge of the operations. He divided the city into sections or wards, which were to be in the charge of a *kalaposh* Sardar with a contingent of troops The Sardar demanded from each householder more than what he could possibly pay. In

case of his inability to pay the required amount, every kind of cruelty was resorted to. The people were anxious to sell their ornaments, utensils and clothing to meet the demands of the collectors but no customers were to be found. Gold sold at Rs. 8 to Rs. 10 per tola and silver at 2 tolas a rupee. There were many who committed suicide to escape humiliation and many died under torment. Even those who paid the levy were not safe. Their houses were plundered and floors dug up in search of hidden treasures. Many women were ravished, some committed suicide, while others drowned themselves to escape these indignities Wherever Abdali heard of a beautiful Hindu woman, she was ordered to be brought to him. This trouble continued from the 4th February to the 20th when a rumour about the Shah's early departure speeded up the work of the collections. The Emperor, Alamgir II, had to give away his daughter, Zuhra Begum, in marriage to the invader's son, Timur Shah. Before he finally moved out of Delhi, Abdali appointed Ali Gauhar (the Emperor's eldest son) as the Wazir, Imad-ul-mulk as Wakil-i-Mutlaq (or supreme regent) with no power and Najib Khan Rohilla (his active supporter) as Mir Bakshi or head of the Imperial army. The plunder and atrocities, however, continued throughout February and in spite of Abdali's orders to the contrary, Delhi was plundered once again by his musketeers on March 5.

Struggle For Power Between The Marathas, Rohillas And Abdali

Najib Khan, the Rohilla Chief, had been left by Abdali as his chief agent in Delhi The Emperor's official Wazir was without any power whatsoever. Najib Khan took control of all the districts around the capital, including the princes' estates. The behaviour of Najib Khan antagonised the Emperor who wished for the return of Imad-ul-mulk to power. The Marathas also wanted to drive Najib Khan out of power. Finding the time opportune, the Marathas demanded *Chauth* from the Emperor as they had been getting in the reigns of Muhammad Shah and his son As the lands assigned to them for this purpose had been occupied by Najib Khan, they held him responsible for the payment. On the Emperor's reply that the Afghan plunderer had left him nothing (for payment), the Maratha forces marched upon Delhi on July 16, 1757 A.D., and encamped at Patparganj. Najib Khan had meanwhile made preparations to meet the Maratha forces and closed all the ferries over the Yamuna from Wazirabad in the north to Khizrabad in the south. This resulted in the complete closure of traffic and consequently the prices of foodstuffs shot up in Delhi. Trenches were also dug near Khizrabad to prevent any

invasion from the south, The Marathas, however, managed to cross over to Delhi by boats near Okhla in small batches and plundered the environs of Safdarjang Tomb, Man Khan quarter of the old city and Jaisinghpura Raghunath Rao's force reached Khizrabad on August 11 One wing of the Maratha force entered the old fort and penetrated further into the old city which was plundered and its inhabitants scared away Here they were bravely resisted for some time by the son of Narsinghdas Kayath A force sent under Qutb Shah to oppose the Marathas near the river bank, south-east of the city, was defeated Another Maratha force under Malhar Rao Holkar, together with Imad-ul-mulk's troops, assaulted Delhi from the north and took possession of the territory up to Sabzimandi, the horse market and Wazirabad from Kashmire Gate side After a short lull, war again broke out on August 30 and Maratha cannon-balls reached Hayat Baksh Garden, the Diwan-i-Khas, the Diwan-i-Am and the Imperial Wardrobe within the palace Two bastion of the Delhi Gate were also demolished Najib Khan had no alternative but to surrender unconditionally which he did on September 3, 1757 A D The Marathas occupied the Fort and Najib Khan's reign of five months was over He went over to his estates where he lived in open defiance of Delhi Government and kept constantly writing to Abdali to come back to India and expel the Deccani infidel from Delhi Imad-ul-mulk now regained his power as the Wazir but it did not in any way mitigate the agony of Delhi It had been squeezed dry of its wealth twice by Abdali and his troops in the first quarter of the year 1757 A D, Najib's war requisitions had kept up the strain in July and August and Maratha cannons had damaged the palace and bastions, the high price and scarcity of foodstuffs had continued throughout and now, during the two months of September and October, a shaking fever raged with violence and left the eyes affected Then came the epidemic of brain fever in the following March and April Grain and the various *dals* became very dear and even medicines could not be had for any price" To add to the agony of the people, Delhi was rocked by a violent earthquake on November 21, 1757 A D.

Dattaji Sindhia, with his young ward, Jankoji Sindhia, reached Najafgarh on December 26, 1758 A D and declared that he had been appointed by the Peshwa to replace Malhar Rao Holkar as the Subadar of Agra and demanded tribute from the capital. Imad-ul-mulk strengthened the defences of the capital. to keep out the Marathas The Wazir offered to pay rupees 7 or 8 lakhs if the capital was spared The Imperial troops in the trenches near Sarai Ruhela made the mistake of sallying forth with the result that they were defeated and the

Marathas pursued them up to the Delhi Gate. However, the Wazir was able to come to terms with Dattaji, whose army withdrew without plundering the capital.

The news of the conquest of Punjab by Abdali's troops led Imad-ul-mulk to put an end to the crown puppet, Alamgir II, and his own rival Intizam-ud-daulah in November 1757 A.D. He looked upon them as a possible source of danger in the event of an Afghan invasion of Delhi. After the murder of Alamgir II (1754-59 A.D.), the grandson of Aurangzeb's youngest child, Kam Baksh, was enthroned under the title of Shahjahan III. The news of Abdali's advance led to an exodus of the people from Delhi on December 8 Even the princes were removed from the palace while Imad-ul-mulk began to make prepartions for the defence of the capital On January 9, 1760 A.D., Dattaji Sindhia fell in a battle ten miles north of Delhi and his army fled to Rajasthan. Imad-ul-mulk, the Wazir, also took refuge in flight The victorious King Ahmad Shah Abdali encamped at Khizrabad and appointed Yaqub Ali Khan, a cousin of the Abdali Wazir, who had been long settled in India as Subadar of Delhi The Subadar made earnest efforts to pacify the starving Delhi population by making arrangements for a regular supply of food He appointed his own kotwal to restore law and order But before conditions returned to normal, Sadasiv Bhau appeared near Agra (June, 1760 A.D.) and Yakub Ali Khan had to make preparations to meet the Maratha forces The Lahore Gate was strengthened with new wooden planks and the Delhi Gate of the palace was ordered to be kept closed The Marathas began their attack on July 22, but the Khizri Gate covered with "brass plates and braced with iron bars" defied their efforts for over two hours The Maratha soldiers, meanwhile, climbed the wall on the side of the Asad Burj and forced their entry into the palace but were over powered by Abdali's soldiers and killed The Marathas began a regular siege of the fort and were able to make breaches in the Diwan-i-Khas, Rang Mahal, Moti Mahal and Shah Burj. The food supplies in the fort were also exhausted and Yakub Ali Khan had no alternative but to surrender the fort (August 2, 1760 A.D.) The Marathas found the treasury empty Even a portion of the silver ceiling of Shahjahan's Diwan-i-Khas had been stripped off by Imad-ul-mulk and there was no money to pay even for one week's subsistence On August 6, Bhau took out what remained of the ceiling of the Diwan-i-Khas and coined the silver into nine lakhs of rupees. Jadunath Sarkar repudiates the other version that the tombs and shrines of the Persians and Afghans were also plundered Bhau deposed the Wazir's puppet, Shahjahan III (October 10,

1760 A D.), and proclaimed Ali Gauhar, then in exile at Allahabad, as the Emperor entitled Shah Alam II Leaving Naro Shankar as Subadar and Qiladar of Delhi, Bhau marched northwards to take possession of Kunjpura, which was held by a protege of Najib Khan However, Delhi fell a prey alternately to Abdali and the Marathas

Ahmad Shah Abdali defeated the Marathas at the battle of Panipat (January 14, 1761 A D) and entered Delhi where he remained for a month and a half holding his court regularly in the Diwan-i-Khas After seizing as much money as he possibly could, he left the capital on March 20, 1761 A D, appointing Najib Khan as the Supreme Regent and Imad-ul-mulk as the Wazir Shah Alam, still in exile, was to be recognised as the Emperor Najib Khan, however, soon seized all powers and for the next ten years (1761-70 A D) he was the virtual dictator while the Emperor was sighing out his days in exile at Allahabad or elsewhere in the territory of the Nawab of Avadh Mirza Jawan Baksh, the Emperor's eldest son who remained in the capital, acted as a Vicar Najib Khan held the important office of Mir Bakshi (Head of the Army), Faujdar (Governor) of the capital and Mukhtar (Regent) With the aid of his trusted and able lieutenants such as his brother, Sultan Khan, and his son, Zabita Khan Najib Khan was able to restore order in Delhi He appointed his own men to control the offices of tax collection, grain market etc Zabita Khan pleased everyone, especially the traders, by strict justice, suppression of robbery and sympathy with the people in their trouble Najib Khan ruled well checkmated the Jat advances, kept the Marathas at bay and restored peace in the territories under his domain He was a general of high order and his "defence of Delhi against the Jat-Maratha-Sikh army of Jawahir Singh, his running fight in grim pursuit of the Sikh invaders and his storming of the mud fort at Ruana with mere dismounted cavalry" to quote Jadunath Sarkar "illustrates his consummate generalship in three different types of battle ' But he had to admit defeat against the Sikhs who "fired with all the energy of a newly risen and hungry people" took up arms against him He entreated the Emperor to permit him to resign and retire to his newly-built town of Najibabad He wrote to the Emperor Shah Alam "Until this hour I have manifested the firmest devotion and loyalty to the young princes and ex-Empress (in Delhi Fort) But I am no longer able to continue that support to them which is necessary for their protection Let your Majesty advance to your capital and yourself defend your own honour Your vassal frankly represents that he is not equal to the charge in his

present situation" He added that the Sikhs had prevailed and he was unable to provide even for his own security. He returned broken-hearted to Najibabad, where he died in December, 1770 A.D., leaving all his power to his younger son, Zabita Khan.

Restoration Of Shah Alam

Shah Alam was still in exile at Allahabad when the news of the death of Najib Khan reached him. He had joined a coalition of Mir Qasim and the Nawab of Avadh against the British but their combined forces were routed at Baxar (October 22, 1764 A.D.) Shah Alam at once made peace with the victors By the Treaty of Allahabad the English handed over to the Emperor, Allahabad and the surrounding tracts wrested from the Nawab of Avadh In return for these concessions, the emperor formally granted the Diwani of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa to the East India Company (August 12 1765 A.D.) The English also promised to restore the Emperor to his capital But when his repeated entreaties met with no response Shah Alam turned towards the Marathas who readily agreed The Maratha forces captured the Imperial capital on February 10, 1771 A.D., and after extorting some concessions, handed over the fort to the Emperor's agent Shah Alam rode into the capital on Monday, January 6 1772 A.D. It happened to be the last day of the Muslim month of fasting and the eve of the Id festivities There were great rejoicings in the capital which, after 12 years of "decay, depopulation poverty and humiliation during her master's exile" looked forward to an era of peace and prosperity It was however, impossible for the Emperor, in the teeth of opposition of powerful usurpers and with an empty treasury to fulfil these expectations For the next 11 years, Mirza Najaf Khan a scion of a noble Persian family, was destined to be the most dominating figure in Delhi He was the "last notable statesman-warrior that managed the affairs of the Delhi State," before it became a 'mere shadow' and a 'mere name' The Marathas however soon fell out with the powerful Wazir and demanded the re-instatement of Zabita Khan as Mir Bakshi On the Emperor's refusal the Marathas attacked Delhi A fierce action took place between the imperial forces and the Marathas near Purana Qila on December 17 1772 A.D. In spite of the stiff resistance offered by the imperial troops the Marathas were able to force their way into Delhi Great disorder broke out in the city with its inevitable accompaniment of loot and sack of houses on December 19 Zabita Khan was appointed Mir Bakshi but he held the post for about five months only Najaf Khan regained power after the Marathas suffered a serious set-back in Rohilkhand (May, 1773 A.D.). During his stewardship, Najaf Khan was able to restore

somewhat the prestige of the tottering Delhi empire. The Afghans of the Trans-Ganga colonies were rendered incapable of being a threat to Delhi (April, 1774 A D), the Jat Rajas were deprived of their new acquisitions (April, 1776), the Rohillas were crushed (September, 1777 A D) The Marathas were so busy with their internal feuds and war with the English that they could not divert their attention towards north India Abdul Ahad Khan, the Deputy Wazir, meanwhile, took over as Regent in succession to Husam-ud-daulah (May, 1773 A D) He was eager to thwart and weaken Najaf Khan He tried to take advantage of Najaf's absence in the south to come to terms with the Sikhs Abdul Ahad Khan visited some of the Sikh Sardars, who had encamped near the Shalimar Gardens, and offered them robes of honour Abdul Ahad Khan even undertook an expedition on the assurance of help from the Patiala Chief (October, 1778 A D) against the Cis-Sutlej States His failure brought about his downfall and Najaf Khan took over the regency of Delhi, which lasted over two years (November 19, 1782 A.D) For a time, it appeared that peace had returned to the troubled capital, as a contemporary chronicler wrote "Marriage and rejoicing was seen in every house, buying and selling went on in all quarters of the city new houses were built or purchased " Najaf Khan, however soon gave himself to wine and woman Latafat Ali, as the minister of the Regent, was intoxicated with power and did as he liked While the prices of the foodstuffs rose high, there was no money in the treasury to pay the government servants Even the Emperor and his harem starved Najaf Khan, although a capable general had proved a failure as civil administrator He parcelled out the dominion among his favourites, each one of whom became a semi-independent Subadar Below the Subadars were the petty Sardars—Mughalai Baluch and Afghan - who were allotted small estates in lieu of the services they rendered The Delhi Empire was thus "dismembered into a vast number of feudal baronies, which sucked up the yield of the land, impoverished the emperor and the army "

Najaf Khan's death in 1782 A D, led to internecine contest for power Three of the rival generals Latafat Ali, Muhammad Shafi and Afrasiyab Khan -were murdered, Abdul Ahad Khan imprisoned for life Muhammad Beg Hamdani (the Mughalai leader) stripped of all power and the stage was left clear at the end of 1784 A D, for the supremacy of Mahadji Sindhia.

The Rohilla Atrocities

On November 30, 1784 A D, Emperor Shah Alam appointed the Peshwa as his deputy (Naib-i-Munaib) as well as Commander-in-chief (Bakshi-ul-Mamalik); Sindhia was to be the permanent agent of the Peshwa in discharging these functions In fact, Sindhia remained in northern India as the "nominal slave but the rigid master of the unfortunate Shah Alam, the Emperor of Delhi" Sindhia's lieutenant, Ambaji, took over control of Delhi and checked the marauding activities of the Gujars, who were plundering the environs of the city during the anarchy that followed in the wake of Najaf's death A Gujar village near Surajpur was surrounded by Ambaji and some 200 Gujars were put to the sword Henceforward the Gujars were no longer a meance to the peace of the capital But Sindhia's defeat at Lalsot in Rajasthan (August, 1787 A D) and his other discomfiture weakened his hold on the north and before he could recover from these misfortunes, the Rohilla Chief, Ghulam Qadir (grandson of Najib-ud-daulah), seized Delhi (July, 1788 A D) and deposed and blinded Shah Alam (August 10 1788 A D.) who had failed to satisfy the Rohilla's insatiable demands for treasures Thus began two and a half months' Afghan occupation (July 18 to October 2, 1788 A D) during which the royal family had to undergo unspeakable sufferings The princes and princesses were subjected to inhuman tortures with the result that in two days 21 princes and princesses died The two most honoured widows of Emperor Muhammad Shah and the Begums of Shah Alam were exposed to public view without any veil or burqa Secret royal chambers were ransacked and extremely precious and rare diamonds and pearls were dug out. The total spoils in cash and kind amounted to about rupees twenty five crores Ghulam Qadir did not spare even the Jama Masjid and removed one of the gold cupolas The others were left due to the warning of Sepoy Commander, Maniyar Singh, that such "an outrage in the holy edifice would raise the entire city populace in arms against him"

For nearly two months Delhi was thus at the mercy of the Rohilla Afghans and their co-partners, the Mughalias, who had divided the gates and the wards of the city and often came to blows in the streets over the division of spoils The Mughalias under their leader Ismail Beg Hamdani, joined the Marathas when they began their offensive for the reconquest of Delhi (September 14 1788 A D) Sindhia's army under Rana Khan occupied old Delhi, immediately south of Shahjahan's city (September 28) Ghulam Qadir vacated the fort and tried to escape

but was captured on December 19, and beheaded in March, 1789 A D Shah Alam II was declared the Emperor and Sindhia's flag once again fluttered over Delhi city and it remained there for 13 long years when "the banner of St George took its place" Delhi, henceforward, was a Maratha province Shah Nizam-ud-din (popularly known as Shahji) was Sindhia's Subadar at Delhi from August, 1789 to June, 1796 A D His control over the province was, however, only civil and diplomatic The military control of Delhi Fort was entrusted to another officer, who was independent of him Shahji must have been a strict and harsh person as in the Persian correspondence he has been referred to as *Sakhtgo* he even used to chide the members of the royal family

Delhi—A British Province

It was at this time, the close of the eighteenth century, that Lord Wellesley became the Governor-General of India (1798-1805) Britain was then engaged in a grim struggle against revolutionary France Wellesley wanted to reduce the French influence to make the British people supreme in India He fully realised the importance of the Mughal Emperor as a great political asset and was determined to bring him under British control When the Anglo-Maratha war broke out in 1803, M Perron a French General, was Sindhia's "Commandant of the Delhi Fortress" Perron having deserted, Bourquien, his deputy, set himself as an agent of Sindhia and, like his predecessor utilised the opportunity to pile up as much money as he could He even urged the Qiladar to deliver the palace and the treasury On his refusal Bourquien started bombarding the Fort. The frightened Emperor sent a message to Lord Lake, the British General begging him to "come to his rescue" General Lake marched to Delhi on September 11, 1803. The Marathas were defeated in a battle at Patparganj—a large village six miles south of Delhi General Lake was conducted to the Emperor by Prince Akbar Shah, the heir-apparent mounted on an elephant Thousands of the citizens of Delhi according to General Lake gathered to witness "the revival of the house of Timur which has been so long under a cloud" General Lake acted with magnanimity, constituted a residency at Delhi with Sir David Ochterlony as First Resident and Chief Commissioner Chaotic conditions prevailed in the Mughal capital when the British took over The well-ordered Mughal administration had disappeared and its remnants could only be found in the hereditary ruling families in villages The city had been divided into wards by the neighbouring villages for

the purpose of plunder and it was not possible to go out without an armed escort

In 1803, Delhi was declared to be non-regulated area, the rule being that the spirit of regulations was to be observed as far as circumstances permitted Delhi soon acquired importance as the frontier capital of the rapidly growing British empire in India In fact, Delhi formed a province of its own, its territory was not simply the city and the surrounding country. Besides assigned territories and Jagir of Rampur in U P, it contained Rohilkhand, districts of Bareilly, Moradabad, Shahjahanpur, Meerut, Haryana, Sirhind, Patiala and various petty Sikh States Its territory was estimated to be 249 miles in length, the average breath was 180 miles Though the British respected the dignity of the Mughal Emperor of Delhi, he was in reality a shadow ruler The Emperor's possessions were reduced by appropriation of all portions of the territories situated on the right bank of the river Yamuna in lieu of which the British made a provision of Rs 90,000 p m for the maintenance of the royal family The Mughal Emperor's powers were further curtailed when the British Resident took upon himself the duties of collection of revenues and the administration of justice The civil and criminal jurisdiction of the Emperor was now limited only to the four walls of the royal palace These measures of Ochterlony antagonised the Court of Directors and he was transferred to Ludhiana then a Frontier Agency His successor Charles Seton, was a man of delicate and generous temprament He was inclined to preserve the vestige of authority that remained with the Mughals Sir Charles Metcalfe his assistant who was to succeed him later, did not approve of his policy which, in his opinion "raised the ideas of Imperial power and sway which are to be put to sleep for ever" He acted sternly to suppress a communal riot which broke out in Delhi just after the accession of Akbar Shah II in 1806 The Muhammadan rioters, who had plundered the house of a Hindu banker were severly dealt with Charles Metcalf blamed the Emperor for having instigated the riots The Marquis of Hastings, who had taken over as Governor-General (1813-23) represented the new school of thought in England which wanted that all ceremonial marking supremacy of the Mughal Emperor over the Company's dominion should be given up Hastings considered the idea of paramountcy of the Mughal Emperor as an 'Impolicy' and even a "dangerous rallying point for the Mussalmans of India' The Emperor's feelings were deeply hurt by Hasting's demand to meet on terms of equality From the very commencement of

the term of his office as Resident (November 1814) Metcalfe also made the Emperor plainly see that he was a 'mere shadow.' "The tone, language and behaviour of the court, together with all outward marks and the real operative influence of royalty", Metcalfe declared, "have become in increasing ratio much more ridiculous and preposterous since the illustrious Akbar than before" Lord William Bentinck (1828-35) stood firmly by the views of his predecessors and at the same time turned down a request for increase in the stipend to the Mughal Emperor, who deputed Raja Rammohan Roy to advocate his case in England but with little success. He also refused to allow the Emperor to confer honorary titles as he had been doing before The matter, however, did not take a serious turn for about two years during which period Metcalfe's successor, Sir Edward Colebrooke, was busy with what later came to be known as "The Colebrooke case"

The Colebrooke Case

The Colebrooke case arose out of a complaint made by Trevelyan, the first assistant of the Resident, charging his boss with having accepted and appropriated the *nazrs* purchased articles from the *toshakhana* at half the real value, and levied *ziafat* or entertainment money etc., (June 30, 1829) The Resident was dismissed from service and was succeeded by Fraser, but he, too, had to go on a complaint of favouritism from Trevelyan, and Francis Hawkins was appointed in his place

Murder Of Fraser

Hawkins, more than his predecessor antagonised the Emperor A firm believer in the superiority of Englishmen, he presented a *nazr* to the King very reluctantly and that too, with one hand only His prejudice further led him to "ride through the gates and through the *naqqarkhana* where the highest, by custom, must dismount into the Diwan-i-Am" and then to the Diwan-i-Khas Due to the Emperor's strong protest, he was deprived of the charge of the palace and ultimately replaced by William Fraser

Fraser was generally admitted to be a man of ability except for his 'waywardness' Sir Charles Metcalfe, his admirer, considered him to be "self willed to such a great extent that no power could be entrusted to him without some risk of its being abused" His murder in 1835 is attributed to the animosity of Shams-ud-din, Nawab of Ferozpore, who was reluctant to hand over a part of

his territory, Loharu, for the maintenance of his two younger brothers, as willed by their father. Ahmad Bakhsh Fraser, who had, meanwhile, been appointed to act as Political Commissioner and Agent to the Governor-General, and knew this family intimately, took up the brothers' cause with "all the warmth of his excitable nature", and even urged Amin-ud-din, the elder of the two brothers to proceed to Calcutta to press their claim The Nawab felt greatly sore on this point and in fact called on Fraser to discuss the matter Fraser, as was his nature, not only refused to see him but went to the extent of turning him out of his mansion at the Mall The infuriated Nawab thought of taking revenge. The popular version of the incident, however, attributes the murder to the licentious character of Fraser, who went to the extent of seducing the beautiful cousin of Nawab Shams-ud-din, who respected Fraser like his elder brother Whatever the authenticity of the two versions, it is beyond dispute that the Nawab conspired against Fraser who was shot dead by one of his agents, Karim Khan, in 1835 The Nawab and Karim Khan were both brought to trial and sentenced to death

There was tremendous public excitement as the proceedings of the case had been fully reported in the vernacular press *Sultan-ul-Akhbar* of Calcutta (October 1835) vehemently criticised the prosecution evidence The gallows, according to the *Englishman* were erected between Kashmire Gate and Mori Gate To guard against any disturbance, four regiments of infantry and a strong party of the police guarded the place of execution of the Nawab who climbed the gallows courageously (October 8, 1835) Eight thousand Delhi Muslims offered prayer at his grave The Muslims paid their homage to the memory of Karim Khan by giving him the name of Gul-Shahid and placed wreaths on his tomb The direct consequence of the mobilization of public opinion in connection with the trial of Nawab Shams-ud-din and Karim Khan was the birth of the Urdu press Some Persian and English papers, which existed at the time, were not intelligible to the common man *Delhi Akhbar* was published in 1836 as a sequel to this agitation followed by *Sayyed-ul-Akhbar* (1837), *Sirai-ul-Akhbar* (1841), *Karim-ul-Akhbar* (1845), *Qiran-us-Sadan* (1845), *Sadiq-ul-Akhbar* (1853), etc

While the middle classes were thus agitated, the peasantry felt sore due to exhorbitant demands. The settlement concluded by the British with the landlords seemed to have been very heavy While the authorities would have fixed revenue, the pesants were not sure of their crop In 1815, the Marquis of Hastings toured

the upper provinces of India Riding towards Delhi, he found the land almost waste Bishop Heber, who visited the city of Delhi in 1824, was of the view that the English taxes were exhorbitant and the mode of collection shortsighted and oppressive. Worst of all, when the natives were starving, the British, by questionable means, amassed huge fortunes for themselves

Bahadur Shah II

Akbar Shah II died on September 28, 1837, and was succeeded by Mirza Abu Zafar who took the title of Bahadur Shah (1837-57) The new Emperor was highly accomoplished His interests were primarily literary and aesthetic He was a poet of some merit and a literary patron, in his court flourished the great Urdu poets—Ghalib and Zauq This peace-loving monarch had to face many problems The British Government looked upon the Emperor as a source of potential danger to their rule in India and were anxious that he should be shorn of all vestiges of royal authority To the Emperor's great annoyance, outward forms of subordination to him were not being observed The custom of presentation of *nazr* was considerably curtailed Lord Ellenborough (1842-44) forbade the presentation of *nazr* either on his behalf or on that of the Resident though provision was made for an equal payment This was greatly resented by the Emperor Lord Dalhousie (1848-56) thought that the phantom dignities of the Emperor were meaningless and dangerous He pressed upon the Home authorities the urgent necessity of abolishing the royal title and removing the family to more appropriate surroundings The Court of Directors did not agree with the Board of Control about the expediency of these measures They felt that the withdrawal of the title would in all probability create widespread resentment particularly among the Muhammadans As regards the vacation of the palace, the Court of Directors observed that the Emperor would be greatly enraged and "if he has one drop of blood of Timur's in his veins, he would rather sacrifice his life than quit the palace of his ancestors by force " It was therefore decided to defer the measures till the death of Bahadur Shah But the same old tragedy of the lack of positive rule of succession was pursuing the Mughals to their doom Bahadur Shah desired his youngest son, Jawan Bakht to succeed him but the British authorities recognised the eldest prince Fakhir-ud-din on conditions that he would meet the Governor-General on terms of equality and the royal family would shift from the citadel which "commanded the city, the river and the magazine."

Fakhir-ud-din's death (July 10, 1856), however, precipitated matters. The Emperor's advocacy of Jawan Bakht's claim was again turned down and the eldest surviving son, Mirza Kobash, was recognised as the heir-apparent He agreed to the designation and position of prince or *Shahzada* instead of the title of Emperor, to the great resentment of all the princes

These measures created much dissatisfaction Lord Dalhousie's policy of escheat and annexation added to the resentment A pamphlet, *Risala-i-Jahad*, published at Delhi, preached a religious war against the 'infidels' The rumours took a concrete form when a proclamation with a "sword and shield" on it was displayed at Jama Masjid, and in various parts of the city It called on "the faithful to be ready for a war of extermination of the infidels Persian armies will be marching to restore the Mughal to its pristine glory"

Delhi In The Decade Before 1857

Percival Spear in his book "Twilight of the Mughals' has given a graphic description of the city of Delhi as it existed in the decade before the Great Revolt of 1857 The population of the city, which stood at two million in Aurangzeb's time and 5,00,000 after the sack of Delhi by Nadir Shah had shrunk to 1,00,000 in the early years of the 19th century Von Orlich the German traveller, who visited Delhi in 1843, gives the population as 2,50,000 Hindus, more than three times the number of Muslims There was a steady fall since then and a census survey in 1845-57 put it at 1,66,000 Simon Fraser estimated it to be 1,82,000 in 1856 The former insecurity having disappeared, new suburbs had grown up outside the walls and civil officers such as Colebrooke and Metcalfe had built mansions in the open country The city was overcrowded and there was acute shortage of accommodation Commodities seemed to have been quite cheap Wheat sold at 40 seers for a rupee and ghee 4 seer for a rupee Merchants thronged Delhi from every part of the world, and there was brisk trade Von Orlich observed . "the people passed in crowds from shop to shop, elephants and camels endeavoured carefully to make their way through this living mass, here were the merchants praising their goods, there were handsome female figures, in their airy white garments giving vent to their joy in laughing and jesting bands of music were playing, while female dancers and buffoons collected little circles around them, who expressed their admiration more by gestures than by words A cunning fruit seller offered his hookah to every passer-by to entice custo-

mers Jewellers now and then opened their caskets and displayed their beautiful ornaments of gold, silver, precious stones, and pearls, for the work of goldmiths of Delhi, especially in filigree, are more ingenious, tasteful and inexpensive than anywhere in India, and far excel those of Genoa Paintings on ivory portraits, as well as buildings and processions, are excecuted here in the greatest perfection, and would do honour even to our best artists Not merely is the likeness admirable but the delicacy and fidelity of the execution are very great" The Mughal court was the centre of cultural and literary activities among its celebrities were poets like Ghalib, Zauq and Hali Ram Chandra the mathematician Mukand Lal, the first Indian in the North-West with European medical training and Nazir Ahmad, the Urdu prose-writer were some of the leading literary figures of Delhi

Great Revolt Of 1857

The first shots of the Great Revolt of 1857 were fired at Meerut on May 10 and on the morning of May 11 the rebel troops crossed over the bridge of boats over the Yamuna and stood clamouring for admittance below the palace wall Delhi was unaware of the out-break of the Sepoy revolt at Meerut and the news came as a great suprise to the Emperor as well as the British officers Finding the Calcutta Gate (which was nearest to the river crossing) closed, the troops doubled back to the south and found an entrance at the Rajghat Gate in Daryaganj It is difficult to say whether the "hand that threw open the Rajghat Gate was guided by political motives or lust for loot' The palace guards offered no resistance and Fraser the Commissioner Hutchinson, the Magistrate, and Douglas in charge of the Emperor's body-guards, who had turned up at the palace, were all murdered Theophilos Metcalfe Joint Magistrate however, managed to escape The rebels refused to listen to the overtures of the Emperor and called upon him in the name of religion to assume their command The courtyard and the corridors of the palace were full of the rebels which filled the old Emperor with "bewilderment and terror" On the advice of his friend and physician, Ahsan Ullah, he managed to send a camel rider to Agra to convey to the Lieutenant Governor the news of the out-break at Delhi He fondly hoped that the British troops from Meerut would soon be coming to suppress the rebellion It was after a good deal of hesitation that he finally decided under pressure of circumstances and the persuasion of his own sons, who dreamt of reviving the glory of their house, to throw in his lot with the rebels The Cantonment lay a few miles from the city in the village of Rajpur, now covered by the University Campus But there were

no European troops at hand and the sepoys were apathetic. The 54th N.I., which was matched down to the Kashmire Gate, refused to fire on the rebels even when their officers were cut down. This settled the fate of Delhi. The main guard could only be held till evening, when the sepoys of the 38th N.I, opened fire on their officers, who had to flee to save their lives. Meanwhile, the massacre of Europeans and Indian Christians had started in the city Daryaganj, then largely inhabited by the Europeans and Anglo-Indians, was thoroughly scoured and every Christian was put to the sword. Delhi Bank, situated in Urdu Bazar near Jama Masjid, was looted and its officers killed Delhi College was burnt; its principal, Taylor, escaped with the help of a Muslim servant. Some 49 men, women and children, whose lives were spared, were rounded up and kept as captives in the Fort By 8 o'clock the rebels were sole masters within the city walls and every vestige of British authority had been removed The magazine was, however, still in British hands and it is illustrative of the confusion prevailing among the native troops that nothing was done to capture this enormous source of ammunition, which might have made a difference to the course of the war. Lieutenant Willoughby, who was in charge of the magazine, tried to save it as long as he could and at last when surrender was demanded in the Emperor's name and ladders were brought to carry the place by assault, he blew it off, killing 300 of 'rebel' troops and spectators Out of nine defenders of the magazine, three died at their post Willoughby, Forrest and four others escaped with their lives. The former was killed by a mob while on his way to Meerut On May 16, the captive Christian prisoners — men, women and children—were murdered by the Emperor's retainers in the courtyard of the palace Mirza Moghal was suspected of having ordered their execution though there was no direct evidence to that effect. Hence-forward, the Emperor had no alternative but to throw in his lot with the rebellious troops

The condition in the city was chaotic Anti-social elements were quite active and arson and loot was indiscriminately resorted to. Gaman Pahalwan, the notorious outlaw, and his gang were quite active looting shops and burning houses of the rich Gujars were plundering the suburbs of the city This aweful state of affairs continued when on May 12, the Emperor decided to go out in a procession to restore order. Faizullah Khan was appointed city kotwal with a magistrate under him to punish the guilty. A court, consisting of representatives of the civil and the military was appointed "to do away with the mismanagements." The court was under the Commander-in-Chief without

whose approval its decision could not be implemented. This court however, could not achieve anything substantial though it continued to function till the fall of Delhi Meanwhile, soldiers, young and old, trained and untrained, were pouring in from all parts of the country to take part in the war against the British. but there was no space, no ration and no ammunition for them. The soldiers could not be paid as there was no money in the treasury Mirza Moghal, the Emperor's son, who was appointed the Commander-in-Chief, was extremely inefficient and incapable to make any arrangements The soldiers, who could not get their meals for days together took to plunder According to a report dated May 28, the sepoys had already plundered Delhi for three days They would enter the houses of the rich and the wealthy on the pretext of searching for Europeans and Christians and deprive them of their belongings The Emperor tried his best to restore order but his appeals went unheeded He was so much disgusted that at one stage he threatened to abdicate if conditions did not improve He summoned the Delhi banks and asked them to contribute liberally to the royal treasury With much difficulty one lakh of rupees could be raised for payment to the troops Even a mint was opened by the Emperor's orders but it did not help matters The problem of ammunition was, however, worse Hundreds of people were dying daily in action for want of ammunition A magazine was temporarily started in the house of Begum Samru at Churiwalan, where some 250 people were daily employed to manufacture gun powder, but the demand was greater than the supply Unable to obtain sulphur in the open market the rebels searched the shop of one Devi Das and recovered large quantities There was a shortage of labourers and artisans, which the army needed so much The British were, however, getting supplies of men, ammunition and ration unhampered What was perhaps more, there was intrigue and spying rampant in the Indian ranks, Mirza Moghal the Commander-in-Chief had set himself against the leader of Bareilly Brigade, General Bakht Khan, who, by sheer force of his personality, had become the virtual Commander-in-Chief of the fighting forces Bakht Khan's orders were however, not obeyed and soon afterwards he had to relinquish his post Begum Zinat Mahal, the chief queen, on the other hand, was trying to secure the succession of her son, Jawan Bakht, and had made approaches to the British in this regard. The sepoys suspected her to be in league with the British Hakim Ashan Ullah was suspected of correspondence with the English and no wonder the sepoys held him responsible for the explosion in the magazine which occurred soon after his visit. Mirza Ilahi Baksh

and Maulvi Rajab Ali were clearly working in the interest of the British. The Emperor, on his part, had no good feeling for the rebel troops whose virtual prisoner he was. But a very significant feature of the rebellion at Delhi was that Bahadur Shah was able to maintain communal harmony. "From the very beginning the Emperor set his mind definitely against communal tendencies distrupting the offensive against the English On May, 19, when the standard of holy war was raised by the Muhammadans he condemned this move and declared that the holy war was against the English On the last day of the Ramzan when order for a *jehad* was pressed, the Emperor and his council remonstrated against it by stating emphatically that the two communities should not quarrel. Apprehending trouble on the ensuing Id festival, he proclaimed on July 9, that any one killing a cow would be blown away The British camp on the Ridge was jubilant that a 'grand row' between the Hindus and the Muhammadans would invariably follow the celebration on the first of August but the false prophets came to grief and Keith Young recorded with dismay that instead of fighting amongst themselves they all joined together to make a vigorous attack " There is a reference to a proclamation issued by the Hindus and the Muslims assembled in Delhi asking the entire population in India to rise against the alien Government The proclamation stressed that the aliens "have ruined Hindustan by heavy assessments and improper cesses have deprived the learned and the respectable of their occupation and have rendered millions "destitute of the necessaries of life" that the army is "disaffected from Calcutta to Peshawar" and the time has come for taking the tyrants to account

Both the Governor-General, Lord Canning and Sir John Lawrence the Chief Commissioner of Punjab, regarded the recovery of Delhi as of supreme importance for restoring the shattered British prestige and were prepared to sacrifice everything to achieve this object In accordance with their desire, General Anson the Commander-in-Chief made his plans but he was not destined to reach Delhi for he died of cholera on May 27 General Sir Harry Bernard, who succeeded him, joined at Baghpat the Meerut Contingent, which had been ordered to proceed towards Delhi The British troops, which left Meerut on May 27 under the command of Brigadier Wilson, were opposed by the sepoys who had occupied a strong position on the banks of the Hindan river, some 20 miles from Delhi The Indian forces were led by Mirza Abu Bakr, one of the King's sons, who took to flight when a shell burst near him The sepoys got panicky

and took to their heels. However, they returned with fresh reinforcements but were again defeated. Wilson was thus able to join his forces with those of Bernard at Alipore 12 miles from Delhi, on June 7. The sepoys, under the command of Mirza Khizr Sultan, another of the King's sons, entrenched themselves at a place called Badli-ki-sarai, about five miles to the north-west of Delhi. The British made a frontal attack, but met with stiff resistance. According to a native chronicler, the Indians would have won the battle, but for the treachery of Risaldar Ahmad Baksh, who in spite of his promises, suddenly ordered his cavalry to turn against the Indians and opened fire. The Indians retreated under pressure leaving 14 guns on the field but they inflicted heavy casualties on the enemy. On the British side, four officers were killed and several wounded. Among the killed was Col Chester, the Adjutant General of the Army. The British pushed forward and occupied the Ridge, a place of great strategic importance, for it commanded the whole of the city of Delhi. Sir Bernard now made preparations for a long siege. He knew that the city was well defended with a wall about seven miles in extent, 24 feet in height, strengthened by a number of bastions and ten massive gates. Around the wall ran a ditch, 25 feet wide and rather less than 20 feet deep. The General soon discovered that the fortifications were too strong to be battered by the infantry he had at his command. The sepoys carried out a number of sorties and attacked the British from the front and the rear but without any success. None of the parties however made any serious attempt on each other's line of communication which, for all practical purposes, remained intact. The Mathura Road remained open throughout and the rebel troops from Oudh and Rohilkhand, from Jhansi and Kanpur, from Nasirabad and Neemuch found no difficulty in joining the forces in Delhi. On the other hand, the British base of operations at Ambala was not seriously threatened. The two armies remained in this position, except for occasional skirmishes, though no less than 20 actions were fought between June 8 and July 18. Bernard's first concern was to secure all the strategic points on the Ridge. Major Reid with the Sirmur Gurkhas was posted at the famous Hindu Rao's House (commanding Sabzimandi) which belonged to Hindu Rao, brother-in-law of Daulat Rao Sindhia. It was built a little earlier than Metcalfe House and was occupied by Fraser till his assassination in 1835. On June 9, a day after the battle of Badli-ki-sarai, the rebels attacked Hindu Rao's House but were beaten back due to the arrival of fresh British reinforcements from Mardan. The next day, they made another attack on the rear of the British, who, in their turn, oc-

cupied Metcalfe House. The sepoys attempted to raise a battery on the Idgah, which overlooked Hindu Rao's House. A desparate action followed in which the rebels seemed to have gained the upper hand but they did not press home the advantage due to lack of an able leader to guide them. Flagstaff Tower, a round two-storeyed building, was used as an observation post. The nearby mosque of the Pathan period and the observatory were used as picquet posts The British plan of *coup de main* by blowing up two of the city gates was thought to be too risky and abandoned

With the arrival of fresh reinforcements from Punjab, the strength of the British force at the Ridge had increased to six thousand six hundred. The rebel army had also been greatly strengthened with the arrival of the Bareilly Contingent under Bakht Khan on July 1 and 2 He now assumed command of the fighting forces in supersession of Mirza Moghal, who was appointed Adjutant General The defeat in another skirmish which took place on June 23, however, gave rise to a feeling of insecurity, suspicion and even treachery in the Indian camp The traders closed their shops and all business came to a standstill Even provisions for the army could not be had It was with great difficulty that the Emperor persuaded the merchants to open the shops but the soldiers were not amenable to discipline They plundered several houses in Billimaran Mohalla and Paharganj, and looted some shops Numerous petitions were submitted to the Emperor by the people alleging excesses by the troops and the princes. The Emperor issued orders that the princes would be treated like common men and punished The situation in the British camp was no better There were disquieting rumours of decreasing numbers of British troops There were cases of treachery and three *Purbiahs* were hanged and the rest of the Company had to be disbanded Besides, they lacked confidence in General Bernard The latter, however, succumbed to excessive physical exertions and mental strain on July 5 and was succeeded by General Reid The rebels attacked Hindu Rao's House a few days afterwards and a fierce battle ensued The rebels were pushed back but Chamberlain, the Adjutant General, who was the right hand man of General Reid, was among the slain. Reid soon afterwards retired and Archadale Wilson took over the command

On August 14, Nicholson arrived, followed by his column of two thousand and four hundred infantry, six guns and some ca-

valry which sent a wave of joy and fresh enthusiasm in the camp. Nicholson was appointed Adjutant General with the rank of Brigadier-General As soon as it became known that a siege train was on its way, the sepoys set out to intercept it The movement of the rebels was, however, made known to the British through their intelligence and Nicholson charged them with two thousands cavalry and sixteen horse artillery guns near Najafgarh, some 16 miles from Delhi (August 25) The rivalry between Bakht Khan and Muhammad Ghaus Khan, Commander of the Neemuch Brigade, made a joint and planned attack impossible Bakht Khan stayed at Palam while the Neemuch Brigade fought the battle single handed at Najafgarh The rout was complete The rebels fled towards Delhi leaving all the thirteen guns, which fell into the hands of enemy With the arrival of the siege train on September 4, the British commenced preparations for the final assault Trenches were got ready near the extreme right of the British lines to serve as a protection against a sudden assault from the Lahore and Kabul gates Perhaps it was the digging of this trench that led the rebels to announce a reward for all those who would carry it by assault The British were able to occupy Ludlow Castle and Qudsia Bagh but so much resistance was offered by the rebels that it took them four nights to construct three batterries, one in front of the Castle, another in the Old Custom House near the Water Bastion and the third in Qudsia Bagh The completion of the first battery on September 10 cost 39 lives and these comprised the unfortunate poverty-stricken unarmed Indian workmen about whom Medley wrote "With the passive courage so common to natives, as man after man was knocked over they would stop for a moment, weep a little over their fallen friends, pop his body in a row along with the rest and then work on as before" On September 11, the assault was launched by the British and the batteries were able to breach the ramparts at two places The assaulting troops divided into four columns under Nicholson, Brigadier Jones, Col Campbell and Major Reid respectively Reid's column met with fierce resistance and was pushed back to Sabzimandi Nicholson, however, pushed on and captured the Mori Bastion and Kabul Gate But his forces could not make any headway towards Burn Bastion as the sepoys fought for every inch of the ground Major Jacob fell mortally wounded and Nicholson was also shot down The second column led by Jones found it impracticable to advance beyond the rallying points of Nicholson's men The third column, however, reached the Kashmire Gate, which was blown off, and the British troops penetrated as far as Jama Masjid A steady fire from the mosque, however, kept them back A part of the town was thus

captured before the close of the day (September 14) but the losses were heavy. Eleven hundred and four men and sixty six officers were killed and wounded. The British captured the magazine on the 16th and the rebels had to evacuate Kishanganj. There was severe street fighting on the 17th when the common people bore the full weight of the struggle Every street became a barricade and bullets and stones were hurled. Every inch of the ground was fought for and there were hundreds of casualties. The British forces succeeded in establishing a line from Kashmire Gate to Urdu Bazar at the close of the day On the 18th and 19th there were seven engagements at Chah Rahal and Ghulian near Jama Masjid Burn Bastion fell on the night of September 19 and the Fort was entered on September 20 without any difficulty except that as Kaye writes, "a sentry was found at each gate, with his musket on his shoulder, grim and immovable, prepared for his doom." Everybody found in the fort was shot dead The Emperor had already retired with his family to the Qutb The losses on both sides were heavy The battle for Delhi cost the British three thousand, eight hundred and thirty seven men and officers killed, wounded or missing from May 30 to September 20 It is difficult to estimate the number of sepoys who laid down their lives The total strength of the rebels was nearly 40,000 Hodson magnified it to 70,000

Restoration of British Authority

The rest of the story can be briefly told Bahadur Shah and Zinat Mahal surrendered to Hodson at Humayun's tomb on Septemper 21 Next day Hodson arrested the princes-Mirza Moghal, Khizr Sultan and Mirza Abu Bakr-at Humayun's tomb and sent them to Delhi in a bullock cart Soon after Hodson followed and overtook them near the Khuni Darwaza, where they had been surrounded by a large crowd According to his own version he felt that if he did not kill the princes, the crowd would be able to rescue them He orderd the princes to take off their upper garments and killed them one by one "No reasonable man", writes Dr R C Majumdar, "has ever attached the least value to the excuse offered by Hodson for this brutal conduct, which, even English historians, not particularly critical of the terrors let loose upon the helpless citizens of Delhi, have described as an outrage against humanity". The three bodies were driven to Kotwali and stripped of all the clothes except a rag around their loins and laid on the stone slabs outside the building before they were burried. Twenty one princes of the royal family were hanged a little later. The Raja of Ballabhgarh and the Nawabs of Gurgaon, Jhajar and Farukhanagar met the same fate. Bahadur Shah was tried by a

court martial for rebellion and complicity in the murder of Europeans. The court declared him guilty on all counts and he was exiled to Rangoon with his favourite wife, where he died on November 7, 1862.

Delhi's fate after the suppression of the rebellion deserves special reference. Describing the massacre at Delhi and the state of affairs after the capture of the city, Lord Roberts writes : "The march through Delhi in the early morning light of the 24th September, 1857, was a gruesome proceeding. Our way from the Lahore Gate by the Chandni Chowk led through a veritable city of the dead, not a living creature was to be seen." There was a suggestion, among others, by James Outram, to raze down the whole city which was happily not accepted, only houses and buildings around the Fort where the British forces were to be stationed, were pulled down and the lofty walls around the city were partially lowered. Famous bazars—Khas Bazar, Urdu Bazar, Mohalla Balaqi Begum, Khanam-ka-Bazar—which, in themselves small townships, were destroyed beyond recognition, according to Mirza Ghalib the famous Urdu poet who was an eye-witness of the sack of Delhi. The area between Rajghat and Jama Masjid was levelled and the main gate of the Dariba was pulled down. Another suggestion to level the great Jama Masjid to the ground was turned down by John Lawrence. All the important mosques *viz.*, Jama Masjid, Masjid Fatehpuri and Masjid Kalan were, however, occupied by the British forces. Jama Masjid was restored to the Muslims after about five years on making a payment of Rs. [illegible] lakhs.

Many people had already fled from the city but thousands remained behind believing in their innocence. Orders were issued asking the people to quit the city. Ghalib wrote pathetically on December 5, 1857: "Don't take it as an exaggeration. The rich and the poor all have left the city. Those who remained were forcibly turned out of the city. Jagirdars, pension holders, the rich and the citizens have all been forced to leave the city. Nobody was allowed to enter the city without a pass." The whole city was given over to plunder. Prize agents had already been nominated for "gathering and receiving prizes after the capture of the city." For several days after the surrender, loot and murder went on and every native, the soldiers came across, was shot dead. Contemporary accounts testify to the brutality of the victors. Some 1400 residents were marched to the Yamuna where they were beheaded and their bodies thrown in the river. Many preferred death to dishonour, and killed their womenfolk before they shot themselves dead. Carthill, during one of his routine patrols, found

14 corpses of women in a back lane with their throats cut from ear to ear by their husbands. Some of the women jumped into wells; such in fact was the fate of the relations of the Raja of Dadri. Thus, lawlessness, murder and rapine went on for several days. T. Metcalfe set up a military court which tried hundreds of people—many of whom were sent to the gallows. To terrorise the citizens of Delhi, gallows had been set up near the Kotwali in Chandni Chowk and five persons were hanged simultaneously. As Kaye writes "Eight dead carts daily went their rounds from sunrise to sunset to take down the corpses, which hung at the roads and market places." He estimated that 6,000 people were thus summarily disposed of. Ghalib lamented "Here neither law nor constitutional conventions are followed, whatsoever comes to the head of any administrator is the law of the place." Wilfred Scawen Blunt, who visited Delhi in 1883, was informed by the Loharu Chief that about 26,000 people were killed by soldiers, or hanged or shot or blown up during the eight months following the capture of the city.

There was hardly a house in the city which was not plundered. The house of the Nehrus in Bazar Sita Ram was ransacked to recover the Mughal princesses who were said to have taken shelter there. The Nehrus, however, refused to hand over the princess even when they were threatened that the male members of family might be hanged by the nearby neem tree. Instead, the Nehrus planned a hazardous and adventurous flight, one party under the guidance of Pandit Mohan Lal went to Ambala while the other headed by Kotwal Gangadhar Nehru settled at Agra. Even the places of worship were not spared and we have it on Griffith's authority that the British soldiers entered a small Hindu temple near Chandni Chowk, dug open the base of the idol and recovered huge quantities of treasures. Soldiers and their officers alike had their share of the booty; the spoils of some officers amounted to Rs. 2 lakhs. Apart from this huge amount appropriated by officers and soldiers the prize money, which included jewels belonging to Emperors and Begums and cash, etc., according to Dr. S. N. Sen, amounted to Rs. 35,47,917/-. Thus there remained nothing but bare walls and empty houses in Delhi to which its residents, whose number had been considerably reduced due to the vagaries of cold and starvation, were asked to return after paying a fine, which amounted to 25% of the value of the real property in case of Muslims and 10% in case of Hindus. The city was made over to the civil authorities on January 11, 1858, and the Delhi Division was transferred from the North Western Province to the Punjab under Sir John Lawrence on February 9, 1858. In May, it was estimated that the population in the city

was reduced to one fourth of its former number The state of affairs in Delhi did not seem to have improved till November, 1858, when the Commander of the field forces, Major-General Penny, suggested to the Commissioner at Lahore the restoration of property to their owners By an order of the Governor-General (December 29, 1859), the houses of the Muhammadans, which had been confiscated, were restored to them

The events of 1857 brought the Company's rule to an end. India was henceforth to be governed by and in the name of Her Majesty The seat of the Government remained at Calcutta and Delhi was relegated to a secondary position

Immediately after the Great Revolt of 1857, Delhi figures as a centre of the Wahabi Movement (with its hadquarters at Patna), which had as its aim the restoration of the Muslim rule in India after driving out the British It was a Muslim saint of Delhi, Shah Waliullah (1702-60 A D), who first realised the danger to the Muslim rule in India from traders from the West and began a "tirade for the regeneration of Islam" He was also said to have invited the Afghan ruler Ahmad Shah Abdali to Delhi to save the Muslims from the Maratha domination Sayyid Ahmad of Rae Bareilly (1786-1831 A D) founder of the Wahabi Movement in India, was greatly influenced by the teachings of Shah Waliullah and his son, Abdul Aziz, and started his crusade against 'infidel' rulers Delhi acted as a sort of transit camp for the Bengali recruits bound for Sittana The Chief Wahabi agents at Delhi were Umaid Ali, Maulvi Muhammad and Aziz Hussain Reily, the Superintendent of Police on special duty considered the latter to be the most dangerous enemy of the Government of Delhi

During this period of oblivion, Delhi retained its importance mainly as a centre of the cultural life of northern India Its historic monuments were another source of attraction no visitor to India could possilbly afford to miss a visit to the capital of the Great Mughals Marchoiness of Dufferin and Ava in her book *Our Viceregal Life in India* devotes many pages to Delhi's monuments which had enchanted her Referring to the walls of the old city near Kashmire Gate she wrote "The breaches made in the wall by our cannons are left in exactly the same state as they were on the day of the assault This "World famed city" to use Marchioness 'phraseology', "which had been the capital of so magnificent an empire, the scene of so many dramatic episodes in the history of India, naturally claimed the special attention of the government" She added that "though

change of time and circumstances no longer admit of Delhi being the centre and the headquarters of the administration, it must ever remain one of the chief ornaments of Hindustan and the home of numerous and influential community" She thought that the security of life and property and the impartial administration of justice were ample compensations to its inhabitants for the loss of the city's former liveliness and colour The only other reference to Delhi during Lord Dufferin's viceroyalty is to a review of troops on January 17, 1886 The number, equipment and martial appearance of the Indian regiments was more than a surprise to the foreign visitors, especially the Russaians who had assembled on the occasion It was a "striking display", according to Dufferin Though not the capital of India, Delhi enjoyed a peculiar position mainly because of its historical association and central situation and it is significant to note that Delhi was the venue chosen for all the three memorable Durbars held in subsequent years

Imperial Pump And Glory

To Lord Lytton (1876-80) goes the credit for holding a magnificent Durbar on January 1, 1877, at Delhi to celebrate the assumption by Queen Victoria of the title of *Kaisar-i-Hind* (Empress of India) The idea was to "inaugurate a new policy by virtue of which the crown of England should henceforth be identified with the hopes, the aspirations, the sympathies and interest of a powerful aristocracy " The Durbar would also help to impress the princes, who as Lytton said, "are easily affected by sentiment and are susceptible to the influence of symbols, to which facts very inadequately correspond " The venue of the Durbar was plain along the historic Ridge where for three months of 1857, fierce battles between the British and the Indians had taken place No less than 79 ruling princes, 1200 civil servants, 14,000 splendidly equipped British and Indian troops took part in the great assemblage which was attended by about 68,000 persons The festivities continued for a week The Viceroy's procession from the railway station to the Flagstaff Tower, passing through Queens Road, Jama Masjid, Chandni Chowk, Lahori Gate and Kabul Gate, was a magnificent and impressive pageant Mounted on an elephant accompanied by Lady Lytton, the Viceroy and staff were followed by the chief functionaries-civil and military-all seated on elephants, splendidly caparisoned. The streets were lined for many miles by the British and Indian troops Exactly at half past twelve on the New Year's day (January 1, 1877) Lord Lytton took the central seat of honour "on a dias in front of a resplendent semi-circle of princes, grandees, courtiers, standard bearers

in due order of rank and precedence" to hear the proclamation of the new title of the Queen as Empress of India read out by the tallest officer in the Indian Army, Major Barnes

Twenty six years later, on January 1, 1903, the Viceroy, Lord Curzon (1899-1905), to whom the idea of Imperial unity had a special appeal, arranged the second Durbar at Delhi to proclaim Edward VII as the King Emperor The Durbar was no doubt planned on the model of the Durbar of 1877 but it was on a vastly larger and more gorgeous scale Curzon took great pains to plan the whole show himself Four times did he visit Delhi to inspect, revise and improve the arrangements of the function which was to last for 14 days, beginning with a State entry with its picturesque and imposing elephant procession Lovat Fraser has given an eye witness account of the scene, "the solemn irresistible march of elephants, the swaying howdahs of burnished gold and silver, the proud maharajahs seated on high, the clanging bells, and the strains of martial music, the silent motionless enveloping troops, the uncountable crowds in radiant vestments and the majestic setting, the mighty catchedral mosque and the vast red fort and the umbrageous part between"

The route of the procession up to Fatehpuri was the same as was taken by Lord Lytton in 1876 From Fatehpuri the route in 1903 was along Ahmad Pai (or Church) Road Queens Road, Mori Gate, Raipur Road terminating at Flagstaff Tower The Viceroy's camp was on the same spot as had been occupied by Lord Lytton, but whereas the former faced the Ridge, Lord Curzon's camp faced the opposite direction The presence of the Duke and Duchess of Connaught lent colour to the whole function.

The investiture ceremony took place in the historic building of Diwan-i-Am in the Red Fort, while Diwan-i-Khas, converted into a super room with a covered passage, was used for the State Ball Some decorations had been carried on the walls and ceilings of the Diwan-i-Khas during the visit of the Prince of Wales (later on King Edward VII) in 1876, but this vandalism was abominable to a person like Curzon who issued strict orders that these buildings should be left in their "original and simple beauty" This grand assemblage concluded with a review of 30,000 to 40,000 Indian and British troops under the command of Lord Kitchener But an important addition was the opening of an Indian Arts Exhibition at the Qudsia Bagh outside the Kashmire Gate It was meant to encourage the art industries in which

the Indian workmen once excelled. Curzon was severly criticised by the Indian and British newspapers for the huge expenditure incurred on the holding of the Durbar.

The next Viceroy Minto's (1905-10) connection with Delhi was limited to his unveiling on March 30, 1906, of the statue of Nicholson (now removed), facing Kashmire Gate Escorted by the Commander-in-Chief and his staff, all mounted on white horses, Minto rode into the enclosure and in a short address laid stress on the "British and Indian soldiers standing shoulder to shoulder to do honour to him"

Delhi Capital Of India

On December 12 1911 there was a third Delhi Durbar in the presence of George V and the Queen There was, however, a criticism of the Durbar in the Indian as well as in the foreign press *The Labour Leader* (June 12) called it "a burning shame and abominable scandel" "Whilst the miserable ryot lives on a pittance which a tramp in this country would scorn", it added, "the Indian Government has the callousness to squander a million sterlings on a spectacle of barbaric pomp and magnificence in order to pander to the oriental instincts of the lordings and princes, the Rajas and Maharajas of India and this is called statemanship" The *Irish World of New York* (December 16, 1911) criticized this huge expenditure when thousands were dying in India due to famine and plague The *Bande Mataram* fore-cast the doom of the English rule as "Delhi has always destroyed the race which presumes to celebrate its pageants within its walls for three generations The hour of the English race is, therefore, struck"

At this great Durbar, the King Emperor George V, made the historic announcement about the transfer of the capital of India from Calcutta to Delhi Many reasons had been advanced for the transfer of the capital Calcutta was thought to be geographically ill-adopted, the development of the railway system made it no longer necessary for the seat of the government to be upon the sea-board, the changed conditions of the British rule in India would keep the Viceroy busy with matters of purely Imperial interest and the subordinate governments would become more autonomous in their administration So Delhi, with its central position and its historical associations, was considered to be the most suitable as the capital of the quasi-federal empire But what weighed most with the Government, as stated in their

confidential note (from Governor-General in Council to the Right Hon'ble Marquis of Crewe, dated August 25, 1911), was perhaps "the peculiar political situation which has arisen in Bengal since the partition makes it eminenly desirable to withdraw the Government of India from its present provincial environments." Once this decision was taken, it said, there could be "no manner of doubt as to the choice of the new capital. On geographical historical and political grounds, the capital of the Indian Empire should be Delhi. The political advantages accruing from the transfer of the capital could not be over-estimated. Delhi was still a name to be conjured with. It is intimately associated in the minds of the Hindus, with sacred legends which go back even beyond the dawn of history. To the Muhammadans it would be a source of unbounded gratification to see the ancient capital of the Mughals restored to its proud position as the seat of the empire."

The city of Delhi, with a small surrounding area of 557 square miles in all, was formed into a small province under Chief Commissioner, who was made directly responsible to the Central Government. Montagu who visited India as Secretary of State in 1917-18 was however, not happy over the choice of Delhi as capital. He regarded it administratively inconvenient. "I am not at all sure", he wrote "that we shall not have to reconsider Delhi and take some other place like Dehra Dun. ... Nasik would be even better where we might stop all the year round. But how are we to leave another unfinished capital at Delhi? How can we undo the city that the King-Emperor founded? Are we still to spend our 6 millions on a mistaken capital?" Many years later, a high British official, Sir Verney Lovett also lamented the decision of the transfer of the capital from Calcutta to Delhi which he described as 'unfortunate'. "The Viceroy and his Councillors, Executive and Legislative have left a big cosmopolitan and partly Europeanized city where even if one section of the inhabitants becomes disaffected and gives trouble", he said, "it is balanced and countered by other sections, to dwell among a comparatively small, ignorant, and backward population of little variety, easily impressed by fiction and exaggeration."

Thus from a mofussil town, mainly busy in money making, Delhi was changed into an Imperial capital by royal proclamation. Temporary buildings were erected in the old civil lines north of the city in 1912 and the Viceroy was lodged in a building beyond the Ridge where the besieging English army had once encamped. A new site, previously called Raisina, about 2½ miles

to the south of the northern wall of Shahjahanabad, was selected for the new capital which was planned by Sir Edwin Lutyens and Sir Herbert Baker. Its construction was delayed due to the First World War and was formally opened in 1930, though it had been in occupation some years earlier

Political Awakening

With the transfer of the capital, Delhi naturally became a centre of political activities and two important papers *Comrade*, an English Weekly (circulation 8 500 copies) and *Hamdard*, an Urdu Daily (circulation 3,000 copies) were started in 1912-13, by Maulana Muhammad Ali A branch of the Indian Home Rule League (founded by Mrs Annie Besant) was opened in Delhi in September, 1916, which, in fact marks, "the entry of the provincial local man"- as a confidential memorandum submitted by the Chief Commissioner of Delhi in April, 1919, put it into the all India political arena" The Indian National Congress had also realised the political importance of Delhi and the Calcutta Congress (1917) decided to hold its next session in Delhi

Sharp differences of opinion had arisen at the Calcutta Congress (presided over by Mrs Annie Besant) over the Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms Scheme Moderates like Surendranath Banerjea were in favour of accepting the reforms but the extremists were strongly opposed to it Bal Gangadhar Tilak, however, could not come back in time from England, where he had gone in connection with a libel case against Valentine Chirol, and, therefore, the Delhi session was presided over by Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya The Delhi session was attended by over 5,000 delegates For the first time perhaps about 1,000 farmers attended this session Pandit Malaviya had a difficult time in maintaining at least an outward show of unity in the Congress ranks The resolution reaffirming the decision of the Special Bombay Conference that the Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms were disappointing and unsatisfactory was carried by a large majority. Strong protests were made against the Rowlatt Report and Indias right to self-determination and immediate Home Rule was asserted

Revolutionary Activities

The disaffection in Bengal, an aftermath of the partition of the province, had led to revolutionary activities by the youth which found a ready response in Punjab. In Delhi, too, there

had been a considerable unrest since 1907, the population of Delhi was characterised by the British as 'turbulent'. It was the view of the British authorities that "as long as the guns of the Fort (Red Fort) are pointing down the Chandni Chowk they remain quiet but once remove those guns and the temptation to lawlessness and outbreak will be irresistible." Branches of revolutionary societies had also been opened in Delhi. Rash Behari Bose, then a head clerk in the Forest Research Institute, Dehra Dun, was the central figure while Amir Chand (teacher in the Cambridge Mission High School, Delhi), J. N. Chatterji, and Dina Nath were his associates. "They were", to quote the Sedition Committee Report (1918), "thinking of planning a huge action that should shake the entire world." The opportunity was afforded on the occasion of the State entry of Lord Hardinge and Lady Hardinge when they were proceeding in procession on an elephant. While passing through Chandni Chowk, a bomb was thrown from near the premises occupied by the Punjab National Bank, near Dhuly Katra. It exploded in the howdah, killing one of the attendants and injuring the Viceroy, who, after some time lost consciousness and the procession had to be re-formed. The perpetrators of the outrage could not be traced in spite of the best efforts of the police. Five months later, however, the disclosures made in a Lahore Bomb Case, to quote the Sedition Committee Report "inspires a strong suspicion that they (accused) themselves contrived the Delhi Outrage", and were responsible for the distribution of inflammable material received from Calcutta. On the basis of this vague evidence, Basant Kumar Biswas, said to be the "real author of the outrage", Amir Chand, Abad Behari and Bal Mukand were convicted and sentenced to be hanged, two of them merely because of the membership of the secret conspiracy and not for actual participation in the crime, and two others to seven years rigorous imprisonment each. But Rash Behari Bose, said to be the brain behind these plots, escaped to Japan. In May 1915, Amir Chand, Abad Behari and Bal Mukand were hanged in Delhi and Basant Kumar Biswas in Ambala. Dina Nath turned an approver.

Rowlatt Bills And Their Repercussions

The infamous Rowlatt Bills which made their appearance in February, 1919 helped further to aggravate the already tense political atmosphere. There were a number of protest meetings in Delhi when measures were being discussed in the Imperial Legislative Council. The local papers *Vijay*, *The Congress*, *Qaum* and *Inqilab* were vociferous in their attacks on the measures

which were regarded as "unjust, subversive of the principles of liberty and justice and destructive of the elementary rights of an individual." In pursuance of his policy to launch a nation-wide satyagraha in case these measures became law, Mahatma Gandhi paid a visit to Delhi in the first week of March and formed a local *Satyagraha Sabha* consisting of Dr. M. A. Ansari, Swami Shraddhananda, Hasrat Mohani, Shankar Lal and others The Rowaltt Bill was passed on March 18, 1919, by official votes and the Viceroy, Lord Chelmsford, signed it after midnight in the building now known as the Old Secretariat, where the Viceroy's Council used to meet (and where the Viceroy's office was located) The news spread like wild fire Four members of the Viceroy's Imperial Legislative Council, including Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya, President of the Congress, and Mr M A Jinnah, President of the Muslim League, resigned as a protest against the passage of the Bill. There was a hartal on March 30 "The universal character of the hartal, it must be confessed", according to the memorandum by the Chief Commissioner, Delhi, on the Delhi disturbances, April, 1919, was "a surprise to officials as it was also apparently to the organisers" Large processions made their appearance in all parts of the city Logs were placed in the ways of tramcars and travellers in trams and other vehicles were compelled to alight and go on foot A collision took place between the demonstrators and the police According to the Hunter Committee Report, the scuffle ensued as result of the crowd insisting upon the closing of a railway refreshment stall The Railway Police intervened and arrested two persons This infuriated the crowd who refused to disperse and demanded the release of the arrested persons Firing was resorted to by the police resulting in many casualties The police opened fire again on a procession near the Queens Garden, Chandni Chowk, which was led by Swami Shraddhananda who bared his chest before the military when they threatened to shoot him There was unprecedented fraternity between the Hindus and the Muhammadans, and it was to attend the funeral service to the martyrs that thousands of Hindus went to the Jama Masjid, where they were admitted courteously Mahatma Gandhi tried to enter Delhi on April 7, but was arrested near Palwal and sent back to Bombay under police escort There was again firing on April 17, near the Billimaran Street, where 18 persons were said to have been wounded, two of whom died subsequently

Delhi appeared to be the centre of the trouble from where disturbances in Punjab and other parts of Uttar Pradesh were promoted The Punjab Government informed the Government of

India that not only Delhi radiated sedition but that it was the principal source of inspiration for local agitators in districts around Col Powney Thompson, the Commissioner of Multan, wrote that "even in Multan people were watching Delhi which is important not only as a historic and present capital, but as the centre of the present disturbances" The Government of India was urged to declare martial law in Delhi for "if Delhi is not brought to heels now, there will be troubles there sooner or later and sooner rather than later"

Non-cooperation Movement and Khilafat agitation

Owing to its history, its size and its importance as a railway centre and an advanced base of foreign piece goods and other wholesale trade, the Hunter Committee Report added, "the city presented itself as an ideal and as an invitable centre for every form of propaganda, good or bad" The Jallianwala Bagh Tragedy (April 13, 1919), which resulted in the death of over one thousand persons due to military firing at Amritsar, left no alternative for the Indian National Congress, as Gandhiji said, but to resort to a policy of "progressive non-violent non-cooperation" Added to it was the Khilafat wrong, i e the pledge given by Lloyd George, the British Prime Minister, to the Indian Muslims that after the termination of the War the British Government would see to it that the holy places of Islam remain under the suzerainty of the Khalifa (Caliph) of Turkey, was not honoured It made the Indian Muslims indignant A society called *Khuddam-i-Kaaba* was formed in Delhi to espouse this cause Gandhiji, who attended the first All-India Khilafat Conference held in Delhi on November 23 1919, advocated a joint Hindu-Muslim campaign to secure not only the Khilafat but to remove other grievances He proposed at this conference for the first time his plan and technique of non-cooperation Resolutions were passed to boycott British goods, to refuse to cooperate with the government and to send deputation to England (and if necessary to America) to enlighten the public there about the Indian grievances The scheme for this first satyagraha, it will be interesting to recall was formulated at Delhi in the house of Principal Sushil Rudra of St Stephen's College, where Gandhiji was staying It was during these days that Hakim Ajmal Khan, the veteran leader gave up his title of Shafa-ul-mulk The Imam of Jama Masjid, who did not follow suit, was condemned by his co-religionists

Delhi became an important centre of Khilafat agitation (the prominent leaders being Dr Mukhtar Ahmad, Hasrat Mohani,

Mufti Kifayat Ullah and Moulvi Ahmad Sayyed) Boycott of foreign goods as well as of elections to the reformed councils, withdrawal from Government service and *hijrat* were openly preached. To show their resentment against the treatment meted out to India after the termination of the war, the famous Gul-Firoshan fair at Mehrauli was not celebrated With the launching of the Non-cooperation Movement, all the important leaders of Congress in Delhi, including Dr Ansari, Shankar Lal, Asaf Ali, Deshbandhu Gupta, were put behind the bars, the only exception being Hakim Ajmal Khan In spite of the arrest of these leaders, the boycott of the Prince of Wales during his visit to Delhi was a complete success It was in that very year that Hakim Ajmal Khan presided over the memorable session of the Congress at Ahmedabad, C R Das, the President-designate having been arrested This was the first time that a Delhi leader presided over a Congress session.

Communal Disturbances

The Non-cooperation Movement was suspended on February 12, 1922, owing to the massacre at Chauri Chaura (February 4, 1922) and the riots which broke out in Madras in connection with the visit of the Prince of Wales Among those who disapproved of this decision were, Pandit Moulal Nehru and Lajpat Rai, who wrote long letters from behind the bars protesting against Gandhiji's decision. When these letters were read out at an informal gathering at Dr Ansari's house, they created a great stir When a session of the All India Congress Committee was hurriedly called to ratify the decision, loud protests were raised by the delegates from Bengal and Bombay and even a censure motion was moved against Mahatma Gandhi which obliged him to accept the position that individual civil disobedience might be allowed with the permission of the Provincial Congress Committees

There was a growing feeling among a large number of Congressmen that the boycott of the Councils (under Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms) was a mistake At a special session of the Congress held in Delhi in September 1923, under the presidentship of Maulana Abul Kalam Azad the Congress affirmed its adherence to the principles of non-violent non-cooperation but at the same time declared that "such Congressmen as have no religious or other concientious objection against entries into legislatures are at liberty to stand as candidates and to exercise their right of voting at the forthcoming elections and this Congress, therefore, suspends all propaganda against entries into

legislatures." C R. Das declared at this session that he was going into the Councils to end them and to "hurl non-cooperation on the bureaucracy from within and from without" However, with the suspension of the Civil Disobedience Movement, the zeal with which the people were prepared to fight the battle of freedom disappeared Communal riots broke out at many places including Delhi, Lucknow, Nagpur and Allahabad Severe fighting between the Hindus and Muhammadans in Delhi from July 11 to July 15 resulted in many casualties Greatly mortified at the outbreak of communal frenzy, Gandhiji resorted to 21 days' fast at Delhi (September 18) with the avowed object of "self-purification" as he called it C F Andrews in his editorial in *Young India* stated "at the foot of the Ridge at Delhi on the farther side away from the city is a house called 'Dil-khush' or heart's joy, where Mahatma Gandhi had been keeping his fast Above the house stands out the historical Ridge itself with its crumbling ruins telling many battles in days gone by" Representatives of all communities—Dr Annie Besant, Swami Shraddhananda and C R Das—met in a conference at Delhi (September 26, 1924), presided over by Pandit Motilal Nehru, to find ways and means of putting a stop to the evil of communal disturbances The Conference passed a number of resolutions pleading for toleration of each other's religious beliefs they urged freedom of expression and practice with due regard to the feelings of others The Conference also established an All-India Panchayat, with Mahatma Gandhi as Chairman, for the purpose of conciliation between the two communities The chief significance of this Conference according to Asaf Ali, lay in the fact that for the first time the intelletual leaders of all Indian faiths agreed to take steps to restore communal harmony Unfortunately, however, one of the sponsors of the Conference Swami Sharddhananda, who was convalescing after a serious attack of pneumonia, fell a victim on December 23 1925, to a cowardly attack by a Muslim - Abdul Rashid—who, under the guise of seeking spiritual enlightenment from Swamiji, had secured admittance into his room Gandhiji called him a martyr who never quailed before danger and was bravery personified A few months earlier had died another stalwart of the freedom struggle in Delhi, Principal Sushil Rudra of St Stephen's College, whose loss Gandhi mourned in *Young India* (July 9, 1925)

The Simon Commission

Communal disturbances dealt a temporary blow to the freedom movement from 1923 to 1927 but the arrival of the Simon Commission changed the trend of events The famous

Delhi leader, Dr. Ansari, was the President of the Congress and under his able guidance the boycott of the Commission was a great sucess not only in Delhi but in the whole of the country. In Delhi, a large crowd assembled with black flags on February 29, 1927, to protest against the arrival of the Commission, broke through the barriers and shouted insults at the members. There were, however, some tragic events such as the lathi charge on Lala Lajpat Rai at Lahore and Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru and Pandit Govind Ballabh Pant at Lucknow Lala Lajpat Rai's end was hastened by the nervous shock perhaps as also by the injuries caused by the lathi blows and "this feeling swept away whatever hope remained of breaking the boycott" The boycott of the Commission was not, however, complete and an all-party Conference which met at Delhi in March, 1928, to offer a united front to the Commission, also did not achieve any result.

The Simon Commission, however, only helped to increase the resentment Its boycott resulted in official reprisals on the one hand and the Nehru Report on the other The Congress, in 1929, proclaimed independence for India as is goal, and the negotiations with the Government having failed, authorised its executive to prepare a plan of resistance, including Civil Disobedience

Bombs Thrown In The Central Legislative Assembly

In this state of tension two young revolutionaries—Bhagat Singh and Batukeshwar Dutt—created a sensation by throwing two bombs in the Central Legislative Assembly at Delhi (April 8, 1929) when the Public Safety Act and the Traders Dispute Act were on the anvil and which the Government intended to pass against all opposition of the press, the platform and even the Congress bloc of the Central Legislative Assembly. Nobody was hurt, the bombs were not meant to hurt anybody This was done, as Gandhiji said, to voice the popular sentiments and strike a note of warning The Central Legislative Assembly was purposely chosen for this demonstration as it had been used by the Government repeatedly to flout the national demand and had become a symbol of India's humiliation and helplessness Bhagat Singh and Batukeshwar Dutt were sentenced to transportation for life at the trial held in Delhi on June 12 1929 A few months later (December 23, 1929), there was an unsuccessful attempt at derailment of the Viceroy's special train near Nizam-ud-din, a few miles from Delhi

Non-Cooperation Movement

In 1930, Non-cooperation reappeared with Gandhiji as leader Boycott of foreign goods, principally cloth and the propagation of *swadeshi* and support to indigenous industries, became the Congress creed The movement was formally launched by Gandhiji with a march to Dandi on March 12 1930, to inaugurate the breach of the salt laws Delhi, as usual, played an important part in the struggle The news about Gandhiji's arrest (May 5, 1930) led to a hartal in Delhi, almost all the shops, including those of the Muslims were closed A procession was formed, which marched to the District Magistrate's Office at Kashmire Gate, where the civil and criminal courts and the treasury and police offices were picketed by women volunteers dressed in red In the scuffle that ensued between the police and the picketers, about 40 persons were wounded Troops had to be called in There was serious trouble near the Kotwali where the police opened fire Four persons were killed during these riots and 119 injured. A large number of arrests including those of Deva Das Gandhi, Lala Shankar Lal, Deshbandhu Gupta and Chaman Lal were made and a procession of flags was carried out which the police dispersed after a lathi charge Satyavati, grand-daughter of Swami Shraddhanand, and leader of the lady volunteers enrolled for the picketing of liquor and foreign cloth shops, was also arrested The Delhi merchants responded by suspending all trade in foreign cloth There were a large number of arrests in August, September and November, 1930, in Delhi in connection with the Satyagraha The arrest of Shrimati Nellie Sen Gupta, wife of the acting President of All India Congress in Delhi, led to complete cessation of work and as a foreign observer wrote "The hartal was blazing in all its glory—street-lights switched off, tram-cars stopped, shops closed" A bulletin issued by the office of All India Congress Committee in January, 1931 paid tributes to the women of Delhi for their "heroism and sacrifice which has in no way been less than that of men" The Lahore female jail was full of Delhi women of respectable families

Delhi Conspiracy Case

The revolutionaries in Delhi, however, could not be overawed by official repression and the Hindustan Socialist Republican Army, a revolutionary body, with its headquarters at Delhi continued its activities Chandra Shekhar Azad Bhagawati Charan Yash Pal, Dhanwantri and Kailashpati were the leading persons and they were in contact with the U P, Rajasthan

and Howrah group of revolutionaries. They committed armed dacoities in many places and collected funds. Kailashpati was arrested in October, 1930 and made a full statement, Dhanwantri was arrested in Chandni Chowk in December and other arrests followed. A conspiracy case was instituted in Delhi before a special tribunal with Kailashpati as an approver. The trial dragged on for seven months but the case was later on withdrawn. Of the 14 accused, two were interned under regulation III of 1818, four were released and eight charged with specific offences. Azad, Yash Pal and some others again escaped arrest.

Gandhi-Irwin Pact

The year 1931 saw the Civil Disobedience Movement in full swing. At a crucial moment when the Movement was gaining nation-wide support, Delhi suddenly became the venue for peace parleys. Prolonged negotiations followed between Mahatma Gandhi and Lord Irwin, the Viceroy, and an agreement between the Congress and the Government, better known as the Gandhi-Irwin Pact, was hammered out after 15 days of strenuous talks (March 5, 1931). Only a few days later, however, Delhi, in fact the whole country, plunged into grief when Bhagat Singh and his two comrades were executed on March 23, in Lahore. Delhi observed complete hartal. Breaches in the Gandhi-Irwin Pact began to widen immediately after the departure of Lord Irwin on April 18. What Irwin had agreed to, his successor to the Viceroyalty Lord Willingdon (1931-36), disowned. The clash was renewed more vigorously when Gandhiji returned after participating in the Round Table Conference in London. Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru and Khan Abdul Ghaffar Khan had already been put behind the bars. Mahatma Gandhi and Sardar Patel were arrested on January 4, 1932, and the second Civil Disobedience Movement was launched. The Congress was declared an unlawful body. Delhi stood firmly, as usual, by the side of the Congress and even became the venue of a session of the Congress in the month of April, 1932. The police were vigilant. Police guards had been posted on all sides within a radius of 30 miles of Delhi and the sale of railway tickets for stations in that area stopped. The kuchha roads were blocked and guarded by the police. A large number of delegates, including the President-elect, Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya, were arrested on their way to Delhi. In spite of all these measures, as its official historian, Dr Pattabhi Sitaramayya, writes, the Congress session was held under the Clock Tower in Chandni Chowk. About 500 delegates found their way to the meeting place. The police, suspecting the announcement

regarding the place of meeting as a mere ruse, were looking for the delegates somewhere else in New Delhi, and others were busy dealing with a procession of Akalis elsewhere. Before the police could arrive in Chandni Chowk in sufficient numbers, the delegates had assembled and commenced business It is said that Seth Ranchooddas Amritlal of Ahmedabad presided The annual report was presented and five resolutions were passed unanimously The proceedings had hardly lasted five minutes when the police arrested most of the participants Following this ,batches of delegates presented themselves for arrest Processions were continued in the afternoon and till late in the evening The total arrests of the day were about 800

The Swaraj Party

For the next two and a half years the Congress remained in the wilderness The year 1934 saw radical changes in the Congress politics An increasing number of Congressmen came to hold the view that a programme of entry into the legislatures was necessary to find a way out of the existing "stalemate" This view found expression in a move to summon a conference of Congress leaders to take stock of the political situation in the country and consider a reorientation of the Congress policy The Conference, which was attended by about forty delegates representing all provinces, was held on March 31 1934, under the Presidentship of Dr M A Ansari in his house in Daryaganj in Old Delhi It decided to revive and reconstitute the Swaraj Party Dr Ansari was appointed President of the Provisional Committee to draw up the constitution and programme of work for the party He succeeded in getting the support of Gandhiji to his proposal that a dual programme, i e, a fight both from within and without the legislature, would remove political inertia and sullen discontent among the inelligentsia and the people

Delhi was the scene of two acts of bomb-throwing during 1935 On September 30 a bomb exploded in the New Delhi Post Office and on October 20, a bomb was thrown from the over-bridge on the New Delhi Railway Station and exploded close to two Europeans, who were standing near the Frontier Mail A small group of people with no outside connection, was found to have been responsible for these two incidents

Delhi was plunged into grief on the sudden passing away of Dr M. A. Ansari on May 10, 1936, while on his way from Mussoorie to Delhi There were spontaneous hartals and meetings mourning the loss of the leader.

Provincial Autonomy

The acceptance of office by the Congress in the provinces, under the Government of India Act of 1935, raised certain problems which were discussed at length by the All India Congress Committee which met on March 18, 1937, at Delhi They formulated the basic Congress policy in regard to the constitution and laid down the programme to be followed by the Congress members of the legislatures both inside and outside these bodies

In the years preceding the Second World War, "the leftist trends began to emerge perceptibly in the broad periphery of the national movement" On September 22 and 23, 1938, the new All India Kisan Congress held its first session in Delhi under the Presidentship of Swami Sahajanand Saraswati The All India Trade Union Congress also met in New Delhi on the 1st January The question of accommodation of left wingers, whose views differed from the official policy of the Indian National Congress, assumed urgency The All India Congress Committee, which met in Delhi in September 1938, clearly indicated the shape of things to come When the leftists walked out after a heated debate, Mahatma Gandhi suggested for the first time that the leftist ought to leave the Congress

'Quit India' Movement

The Congress Working Committee met in Delhi on September 15, 1939, soon after the Second World War broke out On Gandhiji's advice, the Working Committee urged on the British Government the declaration of India's independence The demand was repeated when the Working Committee met again in Delhi on July 3, 1940 after the fall of France The scheme of individual satyagraha launched by the Congress under the guidance of Gandhiji as a symbolic protest against the continuance of British rule in India was so formulated as not to interfere with the war efforts of the Government of India The refusal of nationalist India to co-operate with the British war effort brought about repression In Delhi, 39 persons were arrested and a fine of Rs 2,050 was imposed At one stage of this phase of the movement, Gandhiji even contemplated that the non-arrested satyagrahis should march to Delhi on foot, carrying on anti-war propaganda on the way As the crisis deepened, Sir, Stafford Cripps arrived in Delhi on March 23, 1942 with British Cabinet proposals. Gandhiji held talks with him on March 27, and finding

little hope for settlement, left Delhi on April 4. A meeting of the Working Committee presided over by Maulana Azad was held in Delhi The British proposals were turned down Events moved fast to a crisis in the following months The demand for the withdrawal of the British from India began to grow in view of the Allied failures in Malaya, Singapore and Burma, and the impending invasion of India by the Japanese The wholesale arrest of the Congress leaders, after the passing of the 'Quit India' resolution by the All India Congress Committee at Bombay on August 8, 1942, which demanded the immediate withdrawal of the British from India, infuriated the people The disturbances started in Delhi early in the morning of August 3 There was a complete hartal in the city The workers of Birla and Delhi Cloth Mills went on strike A huge procession of demonstrators paraded the various parts of the city They broke through the police cordon and infiltrated into Connaught Circus The situation became so grave that British troops were called out to stand by A post office in Paharganj was broken into (August 12, 1942) Five municipal terminal tax outposts in Old Delhi were reported to have been looted or burnt The Income Tax Officee at Tis Hazari, a post office and A R P post near Sabzimandi were also set on fire Chandni Chowk the city's business quarter, was deserted it was heavily guarded by the armed police and British troops including paratroopers Extensive damage was done to property in Karol Bagh and Paharganj areas Lathi charges, firing and indiscriminate prosecutions became the order of the day Thirteen persons were killed by police firing, according, to an official version There was no slackening of the movement in the following months Schools and colleges, Delhi Cloth Mills and the houses of four members of the Viceroy's Executive Council were picketed The Council House was the main target and there was picketing by young girls who refused to move There were firings on September 7, September 9, and again on October 2 when a procession near Chandni Chowk refused to disperse even after severe lathi charges The arrests up to September 19, 1942, in criminal cases arising out of the disturbances totalled 241 in Delhi A police abstract of October 3, 1942, states "Outwardly the situation appears to

be quite normal but a strong undercurrent of anti-British feeling is persisting and it may burst out any moment in the city." The District Magistrate threatened to impose collective fine upon the inhabitants of the localities where "violence occurred and particularly the houses in which rioters were sheltered" There was firing again in the second week of October in Chandni Chowk, resulting in the death of one and the wounding of half a dozen persons

The I.N.A. Trial

If Delhi was disturbed in 1942 after the arrest of the national leaders, it may be said that it was shaken to its depths when Gandhiji undertook a fast in prison in February, 1943 The Indian leaders of all shades of opinion held meetings in Delhi, prayed for the safety and long life of the Mahatma and sent a cablegram to world leaders for intervention and his immediate release Some members of the Viceroy's Executive Council such as H P Mody, M S Aney and N R Sarkar resigned as a protest against the Government's failure to release Gandhiji The fortunate ending of Gandhiji's fast once again drew pointed attention to the unresolved political stalemate in India The Vicerayalty of Lord Linlithgow (1936-43) though the longest since the Great Revolt of 1857, piled up only a cumbersome record of frustration and futility, Lord Wavell (1943-47) inherited an unenviable legacy The dark clouds of mutual bitterness and distrust spread far and wide. They spoiled the efforts made by the Viceroy at Simla in 1945 to reconstitute his Council with a large number of Indian members The rift between the rulers and the ruled was brought out most prominently by the Indian Natinal Army trial which began in Delhi in November, 1945. The trial showed how the Indian National Army was formed outside India and how it functioned under the command of Netaji Subhas Chandra Bose *Dilli Chalo* ("March on to Delhi") was a battle cry for this national army so redolent of history, and to hoist the national flag on the ramparts of the Red Fort was their burning desire By a curious irony of fate, some of its leaders, all ex-officers of the Indian Army, had to face trial in the historic Red Fort where the last Mughal Emperor, Bahadurshah, had faced the British Court Martial 87 years earlier.

On November 5, at 10.15 a.m. the court martial began in a hall formerly used as a dormitory in a barrack in the Red Fort. Long before the trial was due to begin, a crowd collected across the main road outside the Red Fort, carrying placards "Save the I.N.A. Patriots" and "Patriots, not Traitors." Cries of "Jai Hind" rent the sky. The Delhi Police cordoned off all approaches to the Red Fort while the entrances to the Fort and the Circuit House were all guarded by the British Military Police. In the nearby tents additional police force was kept in reserve. Strict scrutiny was made of the people entering the court. The press, as well as members of the public, who were to attend the trial, were checked at several places. Shrimati Sarojini Naidu, Master Tara Singh, Sir Frederick James and Sardar Mangal Singh were among the members of the public, who attended the court martial. The accused—Captains Gurbaksh Singh Dhillon, Shah Nawaz Khan and P. K. Sehgal—were in their uniforms without any mark of rank. Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru, donning the barrister's robe for the first time in 22 years, sat along with the other defence counsels—Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru, Bhulabhai Desai, Asaf Ali and Dr. K. N. Katju. Soon after, there started a nation-wide agitation for the suspension of the trial, which gradually developed into a mighty movement for the release of the country from the bondage.

India Gains Her Freedom

The Labour Government, which was now in office in Great Britain, sought to redeem its promise of self-rule for India. The Cabinet Mission arrived in India in February 1946. In September, the Congress decided to join the Interim Government. On December 9, a Constituent Assembly composed almost entirely of Congress members (the Muslim League having boycotted), met in the Parliament House, New Delhi, to begin, in Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru's words, "the high adventure of giving shape, in the printed and written word, to a nation's dream and aspirations."

A new and dynamic factor was introduced when Lord Mountbatten succeeded Lord Wavell (March 24, 1947) to implement Attlee's assurance that Independence would be granted

to India by a date not later than June, 1948. The Viceroy summoned to Delhi all front-rank political leaders, including Gandhiji and Jinnah, in his endeavour to find a solution to the vexed Indian problem The plan of June 3 was grudgingly accepted. Lord Mountbatten explained in a broadcast that "the only alternative to coercion is partition." Freedom and partition came hand in hand on August 15, 1947. At the last stroke of midnight, August 14, the members of the Constituent Assembly pledged themselves to the service of the nation "to the end that this ancient land shall attain her rightful place in the world and make her full and willing contribution to the promotion of world peace and welfare of mankind" The oath of office was taken at midnight and marked "the legal end of the Indian Empire and the birth of its successors" (There was tumultuous joy all over Delhi Demonstrations of joy and affection by the citizens overwhelmed Jawaharlal Nehru and other Congress leaders While driving in State in Delhi, Lord and Lady Mountbatten were also greeted by enthusiastic crowds with prolonged and loud cheers

Aftermath Of Partition

The bitterness and sorrow over the partition was felt keenly The fate of the minorities in the areas directly affected by partition began to hang precariously in the balance There began an orgy of murder and arson leading to the evacuation of the minorities *en masse* As the panic-stricken people driven from Pakistan began to pour into the city of Delhi, an atmosphere of nervousness and apprehension settled down on the capital

The seat of Indian Government could not escape riots, which broke out on September 4, 1947 The uprooted millions from West Pakistan, who poured into the city, were in a state of terrible mental tension They had seen their near and dear ones hacked to pieces, women abducted, properties looted and houses consigned to flames Their minds were filled with wrath and they were eager to wreak vengeance

For some time only a handful of troops were available in the capital and the District Magistrate, in order to preserve peace, had imposed curfew from August 28 to September 1.

Though the old city looked calm and peaceful (from August 28 to September 1) under an extended curfew, the explosion of a bomb in a locality in Karol Bagh was the signal for the outbreak of riots of an unprecedented nature Incidents of looting, arson and killing were reported from many parts of the city The most disturbed areas were Sadar Bazar, Sabzimandi, Paharganj and Karol Bagh The situation in New Delhi also deteriorated to a considerable extent A number of shops were looted in Connaught Place and there were stabbing cases Arson became the order of the day In the prevailing insecurity, the Central Government employees did not attend offices The telephones worked fitfully and the mails were not delivered for two days The airports suffered from insecurity and air services were disrupted Food, milk and vegetables became scarce To the credit of the citizens of Delhi, it must be said that the majority of them did not show religious intolerance, many individuals and institutions came forward to protect the helpless and the defenceless without distinction of religion

A grave task confronted the Government of Free India It was essential to restore law and order in Delhi Chaos in the capital could not be allowed to continue and grow into a deluge, endangering the existence of the nascent Dominion Lord Mountbatten who had been to Simla for ten day s rest rushed back to Delhi The joint consultations of Pandit Nehru Sardar Patel and Lord Mountbatten brought into being an Emergency Committee of 15 with C H Bhabha as Chairman and the task of quelling the riots, restoring confidence arranging relief and rehabilitation, was taken up firmly The city was divided into five zones, each of which was entrusted to a senior administrator who was to act on his own initiative to keep order in his zone, keeping the headquarters at Town Hall informed of the situation "Nothing was more inspiring", and nothing cheered one so much as the spontaneous way in which men and women of all ages, classes and shades of opinion came forward to work at all hours -if need be—round the clock Eventually, through the gallant efforts of the people of Delhi, peace was restored

Gandhiji had arrived in Delhi on September 9, 1947, to do whatever he could to restore sanity to the capital He continued to give his healing touch, fortified by the belief that his work in Delhi would be a service to both India and Pakistan. He had urged upon the Government of India the immediate payment to Pakistan of outstanding dues in spite of Pakistan's hostile attitude in Kashmir Ultimately, he took the fateful decision to fast unto death until the madness in Delhi ceased On January 13, 1948, he began the fast, his fifteenth, for the restoration of communal amity The fast succeeded in kindling the ray of light and hope Nationwide goodwill meetings were held and peace gestures made When Gandhiji's condition worsened on the fifth day of the fast numerous processions were taken out even by displaced persons which paraded through various parts of the city shouting unity slogans and praying for the long life of the Mahatma On January 18 one hundred leaders of all communities led by Dr Rajendra Prasad, went to Birla House where Gandhiji was staying and promised communal peace in the capital Within less than two weeks normal conditions were restored in the capital So the fast was ended But only twelve days later took place the brutal assassination of Mahatma Gandhi On January 30, 1948, shortly after five o'clock in the evening as the Mahatma walked along the covered way leading from Birla House towards the prayer ground he was hit by Nathuram Vinayak Godse's bullets, crumpled and fell on the ground with his hands folded in a gesture of greeting and the name of Rama (God) on his lips Delhi and the country was stunned by the shock of his death Cries of sorrow rose from every lip and there were tears in every eye Next day to the lamentations of millions the funeral procession moved out from Birla House In spite of excellent arrangements made by the military, the cortege moved very slowly, inch by inch so enormous was the crowd gathered to have a last glimpse of the Father of the Nation The All India War Memorial Arch (India Gate) could only be reached after an hour As Pyarelal writes in his book *Mahatma Gandhi—The Last Phase* "People had got on to the base of King George Fifth's statue by wading through the surrounding pool. They hung on to the

pillars supporting the stone canopy, were seen perched on the top of the 150 feet high War Memorial, on the lamp or telephone posts, and among the branches of the trees on both sides of the route to have a better view of the cortege as it passed below The entire Central Vista was a vast, ant-heap of humanity, looking down from a distance almost motionless " Three planes of the Indian Air Force sweeped down repeatedly showering flowers as the procession moved down the Hardinge Bridge and approached Delhi Gate It reached Rajghat by 4 20 p m By 6 p m, the mortal remains of the Father of the Nation were completely reduced to ashes

From Imperial Glory To Democratic Power

With the adoption of the new Republican Constitution on January 26, 1950, this centuries-old seat of imperial power acquired a new importance as the focal point of the national sentiments and aspirations of India's awakened masses The city became the nerve-centre of political and economic activity for people all over the land

Delhi was administered directly by the Central Government when independence was achieved The political aspirations of Delhi's population were, however, fulfilled by the Indian Parliament when it granted an elected Legislative Assembly and a Council of Ministers in March, 1952 This set-up, however did not continue very long and on November 1, 1956 direct Central Administration was reintroduced However, due to concerted pressure from local political parties, the Central Government provided a Metropolitan Council for Delhi in 1966 to give a representative character to the set up

Changing Skyline

The fast-growing population and the large expansion in industry and commerce, largely due to the influx of thousands of displaced persons from Pakistan produced an insatiable demand for both residential and commercial accommodation The result was a rapid expansion the like of which the city had never experienced in its long history Modern Delhi sprawls

across all the earlier "Delhis" that had grown up and decayed during the course of past centuries. The process has not slowed down and the city has spilled across the Yamuna and continues to march steadily towards the neighbouring States of U.P and Haryana in the east, south and west.

This building activity has added a new dimension to the capital with beautiful houses of modern design. Delhi has assumed a new look with concrete, glass and chromium structures of huge proportions The multi-storied sky-scrapers were a new introduction in the capital during the past decade

Crisis Of Sixties

Delhi witnessed the first international crisis for India when the Chinese adopted an aggressive political stance and finally launched a fierce invasion across India's north-eastern border in October, 1962 The grave national emergency produced a tremendous popular reaction and the entire Indian people rose as one single force to face the naked aggression by China which had betrayed a longstanding and cherished friendship with India

Tragic events followed in quick succession in the decade of the sixties India's beloved leader and first Prime Minister, Jawaharlal Nehru passed away at New Delhi on May 27, 1964 It marked the end of an epoch in India's history.

The worsening relations between India and Pakistan culminated in an undeclared war in September, 1965, when Pakistan invaded Indian territory near Jammu across the border from Sialkot Delhi, which was not very far from the theatre of war witnessed a quick change over to war-time civil defence measures like complete black out, digging of trenches and construction of air-raid shelters People of Delhi responded enthusiastically to the national emergency, collected large sums of money and volunteered to donate blood at the emergency centres in hospitals besides running canteens for the Jawans proceeding to the front. The war ended after three weeks and a peace pact (Tashkent Declaration) was signed at Tashkent in the

Uzbek Republic of the Soviet Union. India's then Prime Minister, Lal Bahadur Shastri, died soon after signing this pact His body was brought to Delhi and the funeral was attended by the foreign dignitaries and more than a million people of Delhi The scenes were reminiscent of the funerals of Mahatma Gandhi and Jawaharlal Nehru Delhi has permanent memorials to these departed leaders—Gandhiji, Jawaharlal Nehru and Lal Bahadur Shastri—in the Rajghat, Shanti Vana and Vijay Ghat which are situated in the midst of sprawling lawns and tree-studded parkland on the bank of the Yamuna

CHAPTER III

PEOPLE

In the pre-British period, Delhi was only a political and cultural centre, with the King at its head The population of Delhi at that time consisted mostly of the courtiers, the nobles and the army of the King When the King left Delhi for a longer stay elsewhere, all of them followed along with their families and servants The merchants also had to accompany them as in their absence there would not be much trade left. Francois Bernier, the noted French traveller, who toured through the Mughal empire in the later half of the 17th century, commented thus on the condition of the city "The whole population of Delhi, the Capital city, is in fact collected in the Camp, because deriving its employment and maintenance from the Court and army, it has no alternative but to follow them in their march or to perish from want during their absence[1] "

Later, as a result of the establishment of British rule in upper India, Delhi became a thriving commercial centre. With the improvement in unsettled conditions and introduction of better civic amenities, there began a stable growth in its population The city passed into British hands in 1803, and its population at that time was estimated at about, 1,50,000 inhabitants[2]

During the next forty years, there was a very slow growth in its population In 1847, the population of the city along with its suburbs was 1,60,279 persons, showing an increase of about 6 5 per cent[3] In an enumeration in 1868, the population of Delhi stood at, 1 54,417 persons-- a decrease of about 3 7 per cent[4] This is perhaps accounted for by the fact that after the Revolt of 1857, some of the people were expelled from the city, while many were killed

[1] Francois Bernier-- *Travels in the Mogul Empire*, 1656-68, A D P 381. A Bopegamage—*Delhi A Study in Urban Sociology* P 32

[3] *Ibid*

[4] *Ibid*

Growth Of Population

In 1881, the first regular simultaneous Census in different provinces of the country was carried out Since then there have been nine more Censuses up to 1971 One difficulty in obtaining comparable figures for the Delhi territory for all the nine Censuses arises on account of the administrative changes that have caused this unit to vary from Census to Census For the first four Censuses of 1891 to 1911, the Census operations in this area were carried out as a part of the Punjab Till then, it was included in the so called "*Delhi District*", which comprised the tahsils of Delhi, Sonepat and Ballabhgarh, with a total area of 1 276 square miles[3] In 1912, a separate Delhi province was formed, it comprised the Delhi tahsil and a small portion of the Ballabhgarh tahsil In 1915 an area of 46 square miles on the eastern banks of the Yamuna was transferred to Delhi from the Ghaziabad tahsil of the United Provinces[4] Thereafter, this unit has not undergone any change except for marginal modifications made on the basis of the physical land surveys conducted by the Survey of India Because of these marginal modifications, the area of Delhi changed from about 1 536 sq kms in 1921 to 1484, 1487, 1497 and 1484 sq kms in 1931 1941, 1951 and 1961 respectively For all practical purposes these changes can be viewed as immaterial and the data of these five Censuses taken to be comparable

The total population of Delhi according to the Census of 1961, was 2 658,612 persons out of which 14 89 378 were males and 1,169,234 females It is now the third largest city in India as regards population, after Greater Bombay and Calcutta The following Table gives the break-up of population by main administrative divisions and wards in 1961

[3] V K R V Rao and P B Desai—*Greater Delhi A Study in Urbanisation*—1940—57 P 36

[4] *Ibid*

TABLE 1

Population by main administrative divisions and wards 1961[1]

Sl No	Name of Zone	Males	Population		Percentage to Total
			Females	Persons	
I	Delhi	1,489,378	1,169,234	2,658,612	100 0
	Rural . . .	1,61,992	1,37,212	2,99,204	11·3
	Urban	1,327,386	1,032,022	2,359,408	88 7
II	M.C.D.				
	(a) Zone I—Shahdara.	82,803	67,871	1,50,674	5 7
	(b) Zone II—City Sadar Paharganj	4,03,011	3,12,553	7,15,564	26·9
	(c) Zone III—Karol Bagh, Patel Nagar	1,81,181	1,42,130	3,23,311	12·2
	(d) Zone IV—Civil Lines, Subzimandi	2,02,632	1,59,544	3,62,176	13 6
	(e) Zone V—Transferred Area	1,24,913	97,947	2,22,860	8 4
	(f) Zone VI—South Delhi	64,278	51,299	1,15,577	4 3
	(g) Zone VII—West Delhi	94,155	77,441	1,71,596	6 5
III	New Delhi	1,51,408	1,10,137	2,61,545	9 8
IV	Delhi Cantt. . . .	23,005	13,100	36,105	1 3

During the years from 1901 to 1961, the population of Delhi increased by 2,252,793 persons or over 555 per cent. The growth of population since 1901 can be seen in the Table given below:

[1] Based on the *Census of India*, 1961, Vol XIX, Part II-A, P 35 and *Delhi District Census Handbook*, 1961, P 14

TABLE 2

Variation in population during seventy years [1]

Year	Persons	Decade Variation	Percentage Decade Variation	Male	Females
1901	4,05,819			2,17,921	1,87,898
1911	4,13,851	+8,032	1 98	2,30,865	1,82,986
1921	4,88,452	+74,601	+18 03	2,81,777	2,06,675
1931	6,36,246	+1,47,794	+30 26	3,69,497	2,66,749
1941	9,17,939	+2,81,693	+44 30	5,35,236	3,82,703
1951	1,744,072	+826,133	+90 00	9,86,538	7,57,534
1961	2,658,612	+9,14,510	+52 44	1,189,378	1,169,234
1971	4,065,698	+1,407,086	+52 92	2,257,515	1,808,183

[1] *Census of India*, 1961, Vol. XIX, Part II-A, P. 44, and *Census*, 1971, *Delhi District Handbook* (Series 27) (States).

It will be seen from the above Table that the population of Delhi has always shown an increase since the turn of the century. The decade ending 1911 indicates a slow growth, which was to some extent, due to the presence of hundreds of persons who had come from the provinces to make preparations for the Imperial *Durbar.* On the other hand, an epidemic of plague during this decade was responsible for many deaths The year 1911 is an important landmark in the history of Delhi for till then Delhi had only regional significance The real growth of population in the city began only after the establishment of the capital of India in New Delhi By 1921, the commercial and industrial conditions and facilities in the city had improved and this attracted a steady stream of migrants into the city A large number of labourers, artisans, businessmen, Imperial Government officials and their families came to settle down in Delhi The Census of 1931 showed an increase of over 30 per cent in the population of Delhi The decade witnessed a slight movement of population towards Karol Bagh in the west and beyond Subzimandi in the north-west The Shahdara village located on the east across the river Yamuna also grew up into a township of 8,000 persons, a vast majority of whom depended on the city for employment. The growth of population during the decade ending 1941, was gradual increase by over 44 per cent. The partition of the Indian sub-continent in 1947 brought a huge influx of refugees into Delhi This movement of population into Delhi overshadowed those immigrants who had come from individual provinces The Census of 1951 showed an increase of 90 per cent. The population of Delhi in 1961 and 1971 showed an absolute increase of 9,14,540 and 14,07,086 persons; in terms of percentage, the population rose by 52.44 and 53 per cent, recording an average annual increase of more than 5.2 per cent per annum.

Distribution Of Population Between Urban And Rural Areas

The following Table gives the distribution of population in urban and rural areas of the Delhi Territory

TABLE 3

Urban and rural population of the Delhi Territory, 1901-1971[1]

Year	Total Population (both sexes)	Urban Population (both sexes)	Rural Population (both sexes)
1901	4,05,819	2,08,575	1,97,244
	(100 0)	(51 4)	(48 6)
1911	4,13,851	2,32,837	1,81,014
	(100 0)	(56 3)	(43 7)
1921	4,88,452	3,04,420	1,84,032
	(100 0)	(62 3)	(37 7)
1931	6,36,246	4,47,442	1,88,804
	(100 0)	(70 3)	(29 7)
1941	9,17,939	6,95,686	2,22,253
	(100 0)	(75 8)	(24 2)
1951	1,744,072	1,437,134	3,06,398
	(100 0)	(82 4)	(17 6)
1961	2,658,612	2,359,408	2,99,204
	(100 0)	(88 7)	(11·3)
1971	4,065,698	3,647,023	4,18,675
	(100·0)	(89 7)	(10·3)

[1] *Delhi District Handbook*, 1961, P 15, and *Census*, 1971, *Delhi District Census Handbook (Series-27)*

An idea of the decade-wise percentage variation in total urban and rural population of the Delhi Territory during the last seven decades may be had from the Table given below:

TABLE 4

Decennial percentage variation in total, urban and rural population, from 1901-11 *to* 1951-71[1]

Decade	Percentage Variation during the decade in		
	Total Population	Urban Population	Rural Population
1901—11	2.0	11.7	(—) 8·2
1911—21	18.0	30.7	1.7
1921—31	30.3	47.0	2.6
1931—41 . .	44.3	55.5	17.7
1941—51 . .	90.0	106.6	39.9
1951—61 . .	52.4	64.2	(—) 2.4
1961—71 . .	52.9	54.6	39.9

It will be seen from the above two Tables that up to the year 1950, Delhi typically reflected the pattern of metropolitan growth in India in the present century

The rate of growth was slow up to 1931 a watershed at 1941, and very fast in the last two decades for the urban areas The average increase for the rural areas for each of the fifty years was one per cent From a little over two lakhs in 1901, urban Delhi grew by slow degrees to about 4 5 lakhs, in 1931, but took a sudden leap to about seven lakhs, in 1941, more than doubled itself thereafter in ten years to over 14 lakhs in 1951, further increased by two-thirds to about 24 lakhs in 1961 and rose to more than 36 lakhs in 1971. The pace of urbanisation of Delhi has thus been remarkable. In its spectacular leap since 1941, Delhi has outpaced

[1] *Ibid.*

all others million plus cities in the country[1]. It is indeed, noteworthy that in the whole of India Delhi had the highest percentage of urban population both in 1951 and 1961 In view of this, it would be quite appropriate to call Delhi an essentially urban district According to the 1951 Census, Delhi had two cities—Delhi and New Delhi —and three towns—Mehrauli, Narela and Najafgarh—and also the Cantonment But in 1961, the criterion to declare a place a town was changed [2] Delhi now came to have three towns viz, the Delhi City, new Delhi City, and the Cantonment The Delhi Town Group of the urban tract of the Municipal Corporation, New Delhi and Delhi Cantonment is a Class I town and it has been so right from 1901 onwards While dealing with the urban population of Delhi in the 1961 Census, it may be mentioned that 48 villages which were treated as such in the 1951 Census, have since been urbanised and were treated as urbanised areas in 1961 These villages in all covered an area of 30,934 acres, 16,185 houses, 16,696 households and a population of 88 947 persons—50 469 males and 38,478 females [3]

Passing on now to the rural population of Delhi in 1951, it was contained in 304 villages, 206 of whom had a population below 1,000 persons According to the 1961 Census, there were 276 inhabited and 24 deserted villages in Delhi But the number of deserted villages, according to the revenue authorities, was 26. The following Table gives the position as in 1961-71

TABLE 5

The Number of villages and towns in Delhi in 1961 and 1971[4]

Year	Total number of villages borne in Revenue Registers	No of uninhabited villages	No of villages included in towns		No of inhabited villages	No of towns
			Fully	Partly		
1961 . . .	363	21	69	9	276	3
1971 . . .	258	N.A	N A	N.A.	N A	3

[1] Ashok Mitra—*Delhi Capital City*, P 5

[2] For details, see P B Desai—*Sex and Sex Composition of population India, 1901-1961*, Pp 213-214

[3] *Dehli District Census Handbook*, 1951

[4] *Census of India*, 1961, Vol XIX, Part II A, and *Delhi Quarterly Digest of Bureau of Economics and Statistics*, 1972 (*Sept*).

Density Of Population

Delhi is a city that claims one of the highest densities in the world. An idea of the city's density of population at the nine regular Censuses may be had from the following Table:

TABLE 6

Density of population by square kilometre of the Delhi Territory, from 1881 *to* 1971[1]

Year	Density of population per sq km.
1881	192
1891	191
1901	271
1911	245
1921	326
1931	429
1941	613
1951	1,174
1961	1,791
1971	2,738

It is clear from the above Table that the density of population of the Delhi Territory has been on the increase since 1911 The high figure of density for 1931 was mainly due to the fact that the bulk of the population was residing in cities The main reason for the increase in 1951 was that nearly five lakhs displaced persons had migrated to Delhi during 1947-48 This increase was recorded despite the Muslim emigration from Delhi during the same period. The density in 1961 touched as high as 1791 persons per sq. km. from 1,174 persons per sq km in 1951, recording thereby an increase in density of nearly one and a half times during the decade 1951-61 In 1971, the density went as high as 2,738.

[1] *Census of India*, 1961, Vol XIX, Part I, P 42 and *Delhi Statistical Handbook*, 1973, P. 25

This phenomenal increase is due to large in-migration which was nearly nine lakhs in addition to natural increase.

The following Table gives the figures for rural and urban density of population in Delhi.

TABLE 7

Rural and urban density of population per square kilometre in Delhi from 1881 *to* 1971

Year	Rural	Urban
1881	121	8,786
1891	123	9,758
1901	135	10,568
1911	123	11,798
1921	140	1,812
1931	144	2,639
1941	171	3,470
1951	243	7,169
1961	258	7,225
1971	403	8,172

That the rural density had been steadily increasing throughout the period, except for the decade ending 1911, when it fell due to an epidemic of plague, is clear from the statistics quoted above The urban density also rose steadily until 1911, showed a marked decline in 1921, but recovered slightly during the inter-Census period 1921-31 The reason for this fluctuation is that until 1911 Delhi city alone was to be reckoned with which yielded a high figure of density But during 1911-21, the city of New Delhi came into existecce with a lare area and sparse population The same was true of the new Cantonment The impact of the refugee migration during 1947-48 is evident from the urban density figure of 1951

Out of a total number of about five lakhs refugees enumerated in Delhi in 1951, as many as 95 per cent were settled in the urban areas of Delhi. The decade 1951-61 witnessed a very small increase in the urban density. This was due to the fact that the urban area increased from 199 sq. kms to 326 sq kms Besides, it may be pointed out that in 1961, the density of population of urban Delhi is about thirty times that of rural Delhi

The crude density of population per sq kilometre for the Union Territory of Delhi and the break-down figures of its Census tracts and zones worked out on the basis of population according to the Census of 1961, is as follows :

TABLE 8

Density of Population, 1961[1]

Tract/Zone	Density per sq km
Delhi Total	1,791
Delhi Rural	258
Delhi Urban	7,225
D.M C Urban	8,561
Zone I—Shahdara	3,815
Zone II—City Sadar, Paharganj	55,256
Zone III—Karol Bagh. Patel Nagar	20,805
Zone IV—Civil Lines, Subzimandi	13,009
Zone V—Transferred Area	5,378
Zone VI—South Delhi	1,802
Zone VII—West Delhi	1,351
New Delhi	6,119
Delhi Cantt	840

The City Sadar-Paharganj Zone claims one of the highest, if not the highest ever, density of population for any city in the world Its density of 55,256 persons per sq kilometre is close to double the density of the average of Calcutta Municipal area and more than six times the density of Greater Bombay Similarly even the Karol Bagh—Patel Nagar Zone, with a density of 20,805 persons per sq. kilometer is nearly two-thirds the average density of Culcutta Municipal Corporation and more than double the density of Greater Bombay. Thus, it has been rightly

[1] *Delhi District Census Handbook*, 1961. P, 20

claimed that these two Census zones can be counted in the forefront of the world's highest density areas [1]

It may, however, be pointed out that Delhi in 1961 showed symptoms of a "thinning of the core" as compared to 1951 This was because of the dispersal of refugees over the decade to the peripheral regions of the metropolis away from the Old City and the Purana Qila-Jangpura-Nizamuddin areas of New Delhi counterpointed by the redensification of the self-same areas, though at a slower pace The fastest to grow during the inter-Census period 1951-61, was West Delhi, followed by Shahdara and South Delhi The rate of growth was more than five times for the West Delhi, more than thrice for Shahdara, and more than double for South Delhi, the same for Karol Bagh, Patel Nagar, Civil Lines, Subzimandi, New Delhi and the Transferred Area was not more than half as much again as in 1951 The City Sadar—Paharganj Zone grew by a mere seven per cent The only territory that actually lost in population was Delhi Cantonment [2]

There are, besides, two further indications of the degree of concentration in the Census reports, namely, the number of houses per sq km of urban area and the number of persons per 100 houses In the first three Censuses from 1881 to 1901, no precise definition of a 'house' appears to have been used The 1911 Census for the first time gave a more precise definition, which in substance has been retained by the subsequent Censuses This enables us to take the figures of these Censuses to be fairly comparable The 1911 Census, however, did not give these figures for urban Delhi The following Table has, therefore, been limited to the remaining five Censuses

TABLE 9

Houses per square km and persons per 100 houses in urban Delhi, 1921-61[3]

Year	No of houses per sq km	No of persons per 100 houses
1921 .	441	410
1931	581	454
1941	836	476
1951 . . .	1,250	554
1961 . . .	1,429	775

[1] *Ibid*

[2] *Mitra*, *op cit* P 12.

[3] Rao & Desai, *op cit* , P 39 *Census of India*, 1961, Vol XIX, Part II-A, P. 62 *Census of India*, 1961, Part I, P 31

A fairly continuous rising trend is evident from both sets of figures. It appears that the construction activity operated with a high tempo in the forties, when the number of houses per sq. km. increased by more than 50 per cent. During the last decade, 1951-61, the increase in the number of occupied houses was 15 per cent. But the population increased by 52.4 per cent during the same period. This resulted in a greater concentration of population per occupied house in 1961 as compared to 1951

Sex Ratio

The following Table gives the percentage values of male and female population for the period 1901-71:

TABLE 10

Percentage values of male and female population, 1901-71[1]

Year	Persons	Males	Females
1901	4,05,819 (100.00)	2,17,921 (53.70)	1,87,898 (46.30)
1911	4,13,851 (100.00)	2,30,865 (55.78)	1,82,986 (44.22)
1921	4,88,452 (100.00)	2,81,777 (57.69)	2,06,675 (42.31)
1931	6,36,246 (100.00)	3,69,497 (58.07)	2,66,749 (41.93)
1941	9,17,939 (100.00)	5,35,236 (58.31)	3,82,703 (41.69)
1951	1,744,072 (100.00)	9,86,538 (56.57)	7,57,534 (43.43)
1961	2,658,612 (100.00)	1,489,378 (56.02)	1,169,234 (43.98)
1971	40,65,698 (100.00)	22,57,515 (55.52)	18,08,183 (44.48)

As in other cities of India, Delhi's population is predominantly male, although as compared to Calcutta, Bombay or Kanpur, this predominance is much less marked. Starting with 54 males to 46 females in 1901, the male population grew steadily to 58 in 1941. The steadily rising curve in 1911, 1921 and 1931 was accentuated by the transfer of the Capital in 1911, the accelerated

[1] *Mitra, op-cit.*, P. 48 *and Census* 1971 *Delhi District Census Handbook*

establishment of offices in 1921, and the economic depression in 1931. The post-Partition migration improved the female ratio from 42 for every 58 males in 1941 to over 43 in 1951. In the next decade, this ratio improved still further to 44 females to every 56 males, or 79 females per 100 males. This improvement in 1961 is ascribed to the multiplication of dwelling units and the rapid growth of housing

An idea of the rural and urban sex proportion may be had from the following Table

TABLE 11

Changes in the proportion of sexes in rural and urban areas, 1901-61[1]

	1961	1951	1941	1931	1921	1911	1901
Total . .	785	768	715	722	733	793	862
Rural . .	847	837	846	860	815	869	916
Urban . .	777	754	677	670	672	740	817

The proportion of females per thousand males has always been higher in rural areas than in urban This is perhaps explained by the fact that a large number of men flock to urban Delhi in search of employment, leaving their families back in the rural areas

Emigration

Due to the paucity of available data, it is not possible to have a clear picture of the emigrants from Delhi during the decade ending 1951 But assuming that bulk of the non-agriculturists are from city areas, official data is available which shows that about 50,000 of them had emigrated to other provinces.[2] In addition, after the partition of the country in 1947, over two lakh Muslims emigrated to Pakistan The number of Muslims in Delhi in 1941 was 3,04,971; while in 1951 they have been enumerated 99,501—a decrease of 205,470[3]

The Census of 1961 gives details about the emigrants from Delhi to the other States of India (Table 12) Thus, in all, 181,279

[1] *Census of India*, 1961, Vol XIX, Pt II-A, P 43

[2] Bopegamage—*op cit*, P 43

[3] *Census of India*, 1961, Vol. XIX, Part I, P 151

TABLE 121

Emigrants from Delhi to other States, 1961

Description	Total Emigrants from Delhi to other States	Emigrants from Delhi to adjacent States				Emigrants from Delhi to States other than adjacent			
		Total	Uttar Pradesh	Punjab	Rajasthan	Total	Maharashtra	West Bengal	Other States
Persons . .	1,81,279 (100·00)	1,38,225 (76·2)	58,049 (32·00)	69,406 (38·3)	10,770 (5·9)	43,054 (23·8)	12,883 (7·1)	8,548 (4·7)	21,623 (12·00)
Males . .	72,091 (100·00)	46,790 (64·9)	21,551 (29·9)	20,778 (28·8)	4,461 (6·2)	25,301 (35·1)	7,391 (10·2)	5,400 (7·5)	12,510 (17·4)
Females . .	1,09,188 (100·00)	91,435 (83·7)	36,498 (33·4)	48,628 (44·5)	6,309 (5·8)	17,753 (16·3)	5,492 (5·0)	3,148 (2·9)	9,113 (8·4)

[1] *Census of India*, 1961, Vol XIX, Part I, p 151

persons emigrated from Delhi to the rest of India, of which 72,091 were males and 1,09,188 females. The percentage of female emigrants —62.2—was much larger than that of males—39.8 This is perhaps because of the custom of taking in marriage brides from a neighbouring area. The three adjacent States of Uttar Pradesh, Punjab and Rajasthan accounted for 76 2 per cent of the total number of emigrants Punjab's share was the largest in this category—38 3 per cent, followed closely by Uttar Pradesh—32 0 per cent, while Rajasthan lags behind with mere 5 9 per cent It may be added that the female emigrants constituted two-thirds and male one-third in this category Of the remaining 23 8 per cent of emigrants from Delhi, 7 1 per cent were claimed by Maharashtra, 4 7 per cent by West Bengal, and the rest by the other States of India The share of male emigrants was larger in the latter case, the percentage figures for males and females being 58 8 and 41 2 respectively[1]

Emigration

A majority of the people enumerated in the population of Delhi in 1961 were born outside the territorial limits of Delhi. As a matter of fact, only 43 6 per cent of the total population in 1961 were born within the limits of Delhi and the remaining 56 4 per cent were migrants into Delhi Amongst the latter, 36.66 per cent were born in other parts of India while 19.5 per cent were born in foreign countries The following Table gives a comparative picture:

TABLE 13

Distribution of population according to place of birth in 1951 and 1961

State or country where born	1951	1961
Total population	17,44,072 (100·00)	26,58,612 (100 00)
Born in Delhi	7,17,310 (41 1)	1,59,957 (43 6)
Born in States in India, beyond Delhi	5,42,972 (31 2)	9,71,725 (36 6)
Born in countries in Asia (including U S S R)	4,82,482 (27 7)	5,17,537 (19·5)

[1] Ibid.

TABLE 13—*Contd.*

State or country where born	1951	1961
Born in countries in Europe (excluding U.S.S.R.) .	1,094	1,036
Born in countries in Africa	115	769
Born in countries in America . . .	95	613
Born in Australia, New Zealand . .	4	59
Born at sea or unclassifiable . . .	Nil	6,885

It is to be further noted that more than four-fifth of the in-migrants have come from within the northern zone of the country in which Delhi is centrally located The catchment for Delhi is shared principally by the two neighbouring States of the Punjab and Uttar Pradesh, while the third place at a considerable distance in order of importance is occupied by Rajasthan The following Table shows the mojor contributors to the flow of migrants into Delhi

TABLE 14

Contribution of different States of India to migration into Delhi in 1951 *and* 1961

Born in	1951	1961
Total States in India beyond Delhi	5 42,972 (100 0)	9,71,725 (100·00)
Uttar Pradesh	2,62,098 (48 3)	4,21,20 (43 3)
Punjab	1,62 468 (30·0)	3,40,604 (35 1)
Rajasthan	48,592 (8 9)	94,902 (9 8)
Other States & Union Territories	69,814 (12·8)	1,14,99 (11 9)

The Table shows that Uttar Pradesh lost in the percentage of migrants from 48.3 in 1951 to 43.3 in 1961; the percentage for the Punjab increased from 30.0 in 1951 to 35.1 in 1961; and the percentage for Rajasthan also gained slightly from 8.9 in 1951 to 9 8 in 1961.

Passing on to the non-Indian nationals in Delhi, it is found that their number almost doubled itself during the inter-Census period 1951-61 The following Table gives the details:

TABLE 15

Non-Indian nationals in Delhi in 1951 *and* 1961[1]

Nationality	1951	1961
Total Non-Indian nationals in Delhi	2,902	4,616
Afghanistan .	14	75
Burma . .	73	49
Ceylon . . .	5	18
China .	74	162
Nepal	1,228	1,671
Pakistan .	20	832
Singapore, Malaya etc	287	17
U.S.S.R	10	55
U K .	772	527
Ireland	15	23
South Africa .	50	79
Canada	16	25
U S A . .	136	428
Australia	1	21
Others .	201	634

The total number of non-Indian nationals in Delhi, excluding foreign diplomats and non-Indian nationals of foreign embassies, rose from 2,902 in 1951 to 4,616 in 1961. Nepalese constituted the largest single bloc of non-Indian nationals both in 1951 and 1961, though their percentage to total non-Indian nationals in

[1] *Ibid*, pp 29 & 135-136

Delhi decreased from 42.3 in 1951 to 36.2 in 1961. Besides, during the decade 1951-61, the percentage of Pakistanis, Americans, Russians and Chinese increased and that of the British, Nepalese and Malayans decreased.

Displaced Persons

The partition of the country in 1947 into the dominions of India and Pakistan witnessed a gigantic and unprecedented mass migration. The outflow of Hindus from Pakistan progressively swelled through 1946 to assume the proportion of a tide in the middle of 1947 Delhi reeled under an avalanche of refugees who were given shelter in three main camps—Kingsway, the Tibbia Collage area in Karol Bagh and at Shahdara. In fact, the Kingsway Camp, behind the Delhi University, was the largest with about three lakh inmates. The months of August-October 1947 witnessed the heaviest arrivals of displaced persons in Delhi. The following Table gives the monthly breakdown:

TABLE 16

Heaviest arrival of Displaced persons August-October 1947[1]

Month	No. of Displaced persons arriving in Delhi
August, 1947	1,26,668
September, 1947	1,13,215
October, 1947	85,437

Though a great majority arrived in 1947, a small percentage migrated during 1948 as well Thereafter, migration of the refugees into Delhi continued on a progressively shrinking scale Few of these subsequent arrivals came directly from Pakistan Actually they had initially settled in some other parts of India, particularly in the neighbouring States of the Punjab and Uttar Pradesh They later came to Delhi evidently in search of a better adjustment or a more secure resettlement This type of subsequent re-migration was only a sequence in a process of redistribution of the refugee

[1] *Ibid* p 129 *Census of India*, 1951 Vol VIII, Part I-A p 86

load of in-migration designed presumably to correct the imbalance or the deficiencies of the initial improvisations arranged under the stresses and strains of a very grave calamity[1]

According to the Census of 1951, the number of displaced persons enumerated in Delhi was 495,391 The following Table gives the year-wise breakdown regarding the total refugee migration to Delhi during the period 1946-50 ·

TABLE 17

Total number of displaced persons enumerated in Delhi between 1946-50[2]

Place	Year				
	1946	1947	1948	1949	1950
Delhi	91	4,68,562	26,222	400	116

District Lahore in West Pakistan contributed the highest percentage—17—of total displaced persons in Delhi in 1951 The districts of Rawalpindi, Multan, Shahpur, Gujranwala, Lyallpur, Sialkot and Peshawar contributed 8 0, 7 7, 5 6, 5 4, 5 1, 3 9 and 3 6 per cent respectively.[3]

Language

The Delhi District Gazetter of 1912 commented thus on the languages of the Territory "The Urdu of Delhi, polished in the Courts of the Mughal Kings, is the purest spoken in India The towns people use it without exception, though of course speaking it in varying degrees of excellence, but the villagers up to the very walls of the city use the Hindi or Braj of the Delhi territory which contains a remarkably small admixture of Persian ..
Panjabi in its present form is really only spoken by the native regiments who, as a rule, are recruited from the north
the Punjab traders who have their own quarter at Shidipura now

[1] Rao & Desai—*op -cit* p 110

[2] *Ibid* p 130 *Census of India*, 1951 Vol VIII, Part I-A, p 86

[3] For further details regarding other districts of West Punjab, the Derajat, Sind & East Bengal, see *ibid* pp 164-165

speak Urdu only"[1] Thus, we find that the three principal languages spoken in Delhi in the first quarter of the present century were Hindi, Urdu and Punjabi The Censuses of 1921, 1931, 1941, 1951 and 1961 all confirm the fact that these three languages have continued to be major languages spoken by over 90 per cent of the population as their mother-tongues

Separate data for individual mother-tongues, Hindi, Punjabi, Urdu and Pahari for the year 1951 is not available, as data for these languages were grouped for the purposes of tabulation This was done in order to iron out the bias of the informants due to the then prevailing language controversies Details regarding the other Indian languages are available, but unfortunately they are not important as their proportion in the total population is very meagre The available data is reproduced below.

TABLE 18

Percentage distribution of the population of Delhi Territory According to mother-tongue, 1921-51[2]

Language	Census Year			
	1921	1931	1941	1951
1 Hindi, Urdu, Hindustani & Punjabi	97 9	97 3	97 3	94 3
2 Sindhi				0 9
3 Bengali		1 0	1 0	0 7
4 Marathi			0 1	1 1
5 Gujarati			0 1	0 8
6 Tamil		0 3	0 3	0 5
7 Telugu				0 6
8 Malayalam			0 1	0 6
9 English	0 9	0 8	0 7	0 2
10 Other languages	1 1	0 1	0 2	0 3

[1] *Delhi District Gazetteer*, 1912 p 62.
[2] Rao & Desai—*op cit*, p 48

It is seen that non-local languages continued to increase in importance with the growth of the importance of Delhi as the Capital of India In 1921, only one more language—English—claimed a proportion of 0.1 per cent The number of such languages prograssively increased to three in 1931, to six in 1941, and to eight in 1951 Almost all such languages, with the exception of Bengali and English, improved their share in 1951 On the whole these data indicate that linguistic heterogenity has been on the increase in Delhi

Passing on now to the Census of 1961, the following Table gives the percentage and number of total population speaking each reorded language as mother-tongue in Delhi

TABLE 19

Number of persons speaking the principal mother-tongues in Delhi in 1961[1]

(Sex Ratio-females per 1000 Males)

Sl No	Mother-tongue	Spoken by % of the total population	Total			
			Persons	Males	Females	Sex-Ratio
1	Hindi	77.4	2,057,213	1,159,496	897,717	785
2	Punjabi	11.9	316,672	169,097	147,575	774
3	Urdu	5.8	153,247	87,888	65,359	873
4	Bengali	1.1	28,136	15,385	12,751	829
5	English	0.2	4,138	1,903	2,235	1,178
6	Gujarati	0.3	6,594	3,555	3,039	855
7.	Malayalam	0.4	9,487	5,961	3,526	592
8	Marathi	0.3	7,577	4,238	3,339	788
9	Sindhi	1.02	27,198	13,583	13,615	1,002
10	Tamil	0.9	22,962	12,606	10,356	822
11	Telugu	0.2	5,225	2,749	2,476	901

[1] *Census of India*, 1961, Vol XIX, Part I p 237
Census of India, 1961, Vol XIX, Part II-C pp 122-25
Asok Mitra—*op cit* pp 55-57

In addition to the languages enumerated above in the Table, a brief reference may be made to Kashmiri, Kannada and Rajasthani languages as well. The total number of persons who declared Kashmiri as their mother-tongue in 1961 was 3,043, of whom 1,981 were males and 1,062 females,—the sex-ratio being 536 females per 1,000 males. While Kannada had a total of 1,982 persons, 1,184 males and 798 females—the sex-ratio being 674, the Rajasthani speaking totalled a mere 1,648, of whom 797 were males and 851 females, the sex-ratio being 1,068.[1] Thus, how intensely northern the City of Delhi is, "is revealed in a flash by its linguistic composition"[2] It is to be seen that whereas 94.4 per cent of Delhi's population in 1951 declared Hindi, Punjabi and Urdu their monther-tongue, in 1961 the corresponding percentage in this group rose still further to 95 1. In fact, considering the shares of Hindi and Punjabi (over 89 per cent), Delhi may be termed, despite the representation of many other languages, a bilingual rather than a multilingual city[3] In 1951, only 98,000 persons spoke languages other than Hindi, Punjabi and Urdu In 1961, their number rose to 1,32,000—addition of a mere 34,000 in ten years.

This increase, on the other hand, "masks rather curious linguistic declines" during[4] the inter Census period 1951-1961 It is not clear whether the figures reflect reverse migration after completion of tenure of work, or whether the children of those migrant linguistic groups have returned Hindi as their mother tongue because they were learning it, or whether the declines could be attributed to both factors at work The declines have occurred to Malayalam by more than three per cent from 9,800 in 1951 to 9,500 in 1961, Marathi by more than 62 per cent from 20,000 in 1951 to 7,600 in 1961; Gujarati by more than 53 per cent from 14,000 in 1951 to 6 600 in 1961, and Telugu by 46 per cent from 9 700 in 1951 to 5,200 in 1961[5] This linguistic decline thus is contrary to the figures of migration from those States during the decade 1951-61, if it be reasonably assumed that the majority of those in-migrating would claim the languages of those States as their mother-tongue These decadel immigration figures for Kerala identified with Malayalam showed an increase of five times, from 1,700 immigrants in 1951 to 10.250 in 1961, for Maharashtra and Gujarat, the increase was 83 per cent, from 9,800

[1] *Ibid*

[2] Mitra—*op cit* p 13

[3] Rao & Desai—*op cit* p. 188

[4] Mitra, p 13.

[5] Ibid , p 14.

immigrants in 1951 to 17,900 in 1961, and for Andhra Pradesh identified with Telugu, the increase was 158 per cent from 1,900 in 1951 to 4,800 in 1961[1] It may further be noted that Bengali and Tamil were the two most intractable mother-tongues, as the percentage as well as absolute increase in both, reflected almost exactly the number returned as having immigrated during this period from these States Kannada speakers grew to 2,000 in 1961 from a mere 85 in 1951, although the immigrants from Mysore grew from 500 to 4,600 during the same period. Those with Sindhi as mother-tongue almost doubled themselves during the decade from 15,100 in 1951 to 27,200 in 1961 The number of persons speaking Kashmiri grew from 410 in 1951 to 3,040 in 1961 Only the English speaking population remained almost constant

A passing reference may be made to the numerically small and lesser known languages as well[2]

TABLE 20

Numerically small and lesser known languages

Languages	Males	Females
1 Konkani	666	629
2 Goanese	68	42
3 Christian	3	26
4 Mioli		6
5 Umarala	2	
6 Lakanic		2
7. Agsula	1	
8 Ashai		1
9 Derasmoti		1
10 Dhallu	1	..
11. Dulai		1
	741	708

Passing on to the rural-urban composition of speakers of major mother-tongues in Delhi, it may be noted that Hindi, Punjabi and Urdu languages put together are used by 99 84 per cent of the rural and 94 5 per cent of the urban population

[1] *Ibid*

[2] *Census of India*, 1961 Vol XIX, Part I, p 237

The following Table gives further details:

TABLE 21

Percentage distribution of rural and urban population speaking the three major languages as mother-tongue in Delhi Territory, 1961

Languages used as mother-tongue	Rural		Urban	
	Number	%	Number	%
Hindi	2,93,436	98 1	1,763,627	74 7
Punjabi	2,243	0 7	3,14,429	13 3
Urdu	3,052	1 0	1,50,195	6 4
Others	473	0 2	1,31,157	5 6

The predominent position of Hindi used as mother-tongue both in rural and urban areas is evident from the Table The rural percentage of 98 1 is much higher than that of urban Delhi *viz*., 74.7 The second position in urban Delhi is held by Punjabi, and the third by Urdu But in the rural areas of the Territory, Urdu is next to Hindi, followed by Punjabi

Bilingualism

The following Table throws light on the subject

TABLE 22

Speakers of the major mother-tongues in Delhi who also speak one or more subsidiary languages, 1961.

Mother-tongue in descending order of numerical stredgth	Four subsidiary languages in descending numerical strength			
	Subsidiary language-I	Subsidiary language-II	Subsidiary language-III	Subsidiary language-IV
Hindi 2,057,063	English 3,03,234	Urdu 45,125	Punjabi 26,221	Others 16,82,483
Punjabi 3,16,672	Hindi 79,823	English 61,566	Arabic 48	Others 1,75,235
Urdu 1,53,247	English 8,161	Hindi 7,216	Arabic 1,908	Others 1,35,962

It will be seen that those who have returned Hindi as their mother-tongue, have declared English, Urdu and Punjabi as the three main subsidiary languages Persons who have declared Punjabi as their mother-tongue, have returned Hindi, English and Arabic as the three main subsidiary languages while those having Urdu as their mother-tongue, have declared English, Hindi and Arabic as the three important subsidiary languages It may further be pointed out that there is close approximation between the total population of Muslims and those who have returned Urdu as their mother-tongue, the respective figures being 1,55,453 and 1,53,247 On the other hand, the total population of the Sikhs in 1961 was 2,03,916 but those who declared Punjabi as their mother-tongue, numbered 3,16,672 Thus, assuming that all the Sikhs returned Punjabi as their mother-tongue, there were 1,12,756 persons amongst other religions who declared Punjabi as their mother-tongue

Dialects

According to the Census of 1961, both Hindi and Punjabi in Delhi had a total of eight dialects each, and Urdu only two. The dialects of Hindi were *Burgaza, Jabalpuri, Kandiji, Kidki, Mund, Purbi* and *Tibia.* Those of Punjabi were *Bagri, Dogri, Gurmukhi, Kangri, Kashali, Lande* and *Nangal* For Urdu, the other dialect was called Pakistani. The number of persons speaking different dialects is so little that there is no point in giving the individual figures [1]

Scripts

The Devanagri script is in vogue for Hindi throughout the Delhi Territory While Urdu is written in the Persian script, the Punjabi language is mainly written in the Gurmukhi script, though some people write in the Persian script as well

Religion And Caste

The three principal communities inhabiting the Delhi Territory are the Hindus, Sikhs and Muslims The Jains, Christians and Buddhists constitute small minority The city has some Zoroastrians and a few Jews as well The following Table gives a picture of the different communities living in Delhi during 1901-1971

[1] For further details, see *Census of India,* 1961 Vol XIX, Part II-C, p 121

TABLE 23

Population of Delhi by religion, 1901-1971[1]

Religion	1901		1931		1951		1961		1971	
	Persons	Per-cent-age	Persons	Per-cent-age	Persons	Per-cent-age	Persons	Per-cent-age	Persons	Per-cent-age
1. Hindus . .	3,00,207	74 10	3,99,863	62 85	14,67,854	84 16	22,34 597	84 05	34,07,835	83 82
2 Sikhs .	173	0 04	6,437	1 01	1,37,086	7 86	2,03,916	7 67	2,91,123	7 16
3 Muslims . .	98,533	24 28	2,06,960	32 53	99,501	5 71	1,55,453	5 85	2,63,019	6 47
4 Jains .	4,551	1 12	5,345	0 84	20,174	1 16	29,595	1 11	50,513	1 24
5. Christians .	1,860	0 46	16,989	2 67	18,685	1 07	29,269	1 10	43,720	1 08
6 Buddhists .			76	0 01	503	0 03	5,466	0 21	8,720	0 21
7 Others					254	0 14	285	0 01	768	0 01

[1] *Census of India* 1961 *and* 1971

NOTE.—Figures have been adjustsd on prorata basis

It would be observed from the Table that the Hindus constitute numerically the largest religious community in Delhi. The second place is claimed by the Sikhs and the third by the Muslims The Jains and the Christians have almost equal proportions, and are followed by the Buddhists and others—the percentage of other religions in 1961 and 1971 being 0 01 only It may further be pointed out that the Hindus showed a continuously decreasing trend durng the two decades between 1921 and 1941. The Muslims, on the other hand, were registering increases throughout the period and constituted the second biggest religious community next to the Hindus But the situation changed in 1947 as a result of the partition of the country, and the subsequent emigration of the Muslims to Pakistan and the influx of Hindu and Sikh displaced persons into Delhi. This was reflected in the 1951 Census, when the percentage of the Muslims dwindled down to 5 71 against 33 22 in 1941, the corresponding percentage of the Hindus and Sikhs rose from 61 80 and 1 76 in 1941 to 84 16 and 7 86 respectively in 1951

During the inter-Census period 1951-61, the population of the Hindus in Delhi showed an increase of 52 24 per cent However, their percentage to the total population fell from 84 16 in 1951 to 84 05 in 1961 The Muslims'[1] population recuperated rapidly from 99,501 in 1951 to 1,55,453 in 1961—an increase of 56.23 per cent during the decade The most spectacular growth has occurred to the Sikh population—from less than 0 04 per cent of the total population in 1901 to as much as 7 7 per cent in 1961 During the decade 1951-61, the Sikhs recorded an increase of 48 74 per cent The other main religions like the Jains, Christians and Buddhists have also shown a small though steady rate of progress during the decade the percentages of increase being 46 70, 56 64 and 52 44 respectively[1]

It may further be pointed out that during the last four decades, 1921-61, the proportions of the Muslims and Christians have decreased, while those of all other major religions have increased In 1921, the Buddhists formed a negligible proportion of the population of Delhi but in 1961 they constituted 0 12 per cent[2] The magnitude of increase or decrease in the percentage of religious communities in Delhi in 1961 over 1921 is given in the following Table

[1] *Census of India*, 1961 Vol XIX, Part I pp. 248-49 & 251

[2] *Ibid* p. 254

TABLE 24

Percentage change in the religious population of Delhi in 1961 *over* 1921[1]

Religious Community	Percentage changes in 1961 over 1921
Hindus	(+) 17 36
Muslims	— 23 19
Christians	— 1 63
Sikhs	+ 7 10
Buddhists	+ 0 21
Jains	+ 0 15

An idea of the urban-rural ratio and sex-wise ratio regarding the principal religious communities of Delhi in 1961 may be had from the Table 25

It will be seen from the Table that the Hindus are in a majority both in the urban and rural areas There are more Muslims settled in rural Delhi than the Sikhs, next in number being the Christians followed by the Jains and Buddhists There are no Zoroastrians and Jews living in the rural areas at all

Scheduled Castes

According to the list given in the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes (Modification) Order of 1956, issued by the President in pursuance of the provisions of Article 341 of the Constitution of India, 36 castes were recognised as Scheduled Castes for the Union Territory of Delhi[2] There are no Scheduled Tribes in Delhi. The Table 26 gives the population belonging to the Scheduled Castes with break-up of sex and its proportions to the general population of the Delhi Territory.

[1] *Ibid.*

[2] For details, see Appendix I

TABLE 25

Composition of population of Delhi by principal religions 1961[1]

(Sex Ratio=Females per 1,000 Males)

Tract	Total			Hindus			Sikhs		
	Males	Females	Sex Ratio	Males	Females	Sex Ratio	Males	Females	Sex Ratio
Delhi Territory .	14,89,378	11,69,234	785	12,55,064	9,79,533	780	1,10,113	93,803	852
Rural . . .	1,61,992	1,37,212	847	1,56,933	1,33,344	850	1,327	1,069	806
Urban . .	13,27,386	10,32,022	777	10,98,131	8,46,189	771	1,08,786	92,734	852
	Muslims			Jains			Christians		
Delhi Territory . .	90,431	65,019	719	15 566	14,029	901	15,063	14,206	943
Rural	3,357	2,525	752	94	91	968	213	163	765
Urban	87,077	62,494	718	15,472	13,938	901	14,850	14,043	946
	Buddhists			Zoroastrians			Jews		
Delhi Territory . .	2,975	2,491	837	120	128	1,067	25	12	480
Rural	66	20	303				.		..
Urban	2,909	2,909	849	120	128	1,067	25	12	480

[1]*Census of India*, 1961 Vol XIX, Part II-C pp 194-95, Asok Mitra— *op cit* pp 50-51

TABLE 26

Growth and distribution of Scheduled Castes by administrative units and wards in Delhi 1951-61[1]

Administrative Divisions	1951 Persons	1951 Males	1951 Females	1961 Persons	1961 Males	1961 Females	% Variations Persons	% Variations Males	% Variations Females
Delhi—Total . . .	2,08,612	1,25,865	82,747	3,41,555	1,89,470	1,52,085	63 73	50 53	83·80
Rural . . .	63,993	38,330	25,663	69,312	37,127	32,185	8 31	3 14	25·41
Urban . . .	1,44,619	87,535	57,084	2,72,243	1,52,343	1,19,900	88·25	74 04	110 04
Delhi Non-City, Urban .	17,922	10,571	7,351	81,706	45,793	35,913	355 90	333 19	338·55
Zone I—Shahdara .				10,002	5,431	4,571			
Zone IV—Civil Lines—Subzimandi				33,473	19,207	14,266			
Zone VI—South Delhi				21,561	11,737	9,824			
Zone VII—West Delhi .				10,147	5,746	4,401			
Delhi Cantt . . .				6,523	3,672	2,851			
Delhi City, Urban	86,520	45,287	41,233	1,60,403	88,271	72,132	85 39	94 91	74 94
Zone—II—City-Sadar-Paharganj			.	67,724	37,277	30,147			
Zone III—K Bagh-Patel Nagar		.	..	70,131	38,280	1,851			
Zone V—Transferred Area	..	.	.	22,548	12,714	9,834			
New Delhi city Urban .	40,177	31,677	8,500	30,134	18,279	11,855	25 0	12 30	39 47

[1] Asoka Mitra op cit P 52 *Delhi District Census Handbook*, 1961 p. 17

It will be seen that the population of members of the Scheduled Castes increased by about two-thirds from 2,08,612 in 1951 to 3,41,555 in 1961 They constitute 12 85 per cent of the total population of Delhi and 0.53 per cent of the total Scheduled Castes population of India The Scheduled Castes population of Delhi follows the pattern of the general population in so far as residence in urban areas is concerned In fact, amongst all the States and Union territories of India, Delhi has the largest proportion of its Scheduled Castes population living in urban areas—the same being true in case of Delhi's general population as well.[1]

An idea of the percentage distribution of persons, males and females, in some of the selected Scheduled Castes in Delhi may be had from the Table 27

The Table reveals that 87 3 per cent of the total Scheduled Castes persons in the Delhi Territory belong to just ten castes. The corresponding proportion for the males and females comes to 86 9 and 87 5 per cent It may be further pointed out that the caste "Chamar, Jatav etc" claims the highest percentage The next place goes to the *Chuhra* (*Balmiki*) caste

A brief reference to the religion professed by the Scheduled Castes may also be made here The members of the Scheduled Castes in Delhi are either Hindus or Sikhs. Out of a total 341.555 Scheduled Caste population of Delhi, as many as 339,210 persons or 99 3 per cent of the total profess Hinduism The corresponding figure for those following the Sikh faith was only 2,345 persons or 0 68% of the total Scheduled Caste population The caste *Sikligar* has the highest percentage amongst the castes professing Sikhism, followed by the *Chamar* and *Sansi* castes[2]

Religious Beliefs, Manners And Customs

The religious beliefs and practices observed by the different communities in Delhi conform, to a very great extent to those present in other parts of northern India The Hindus worship all the major gods and goddesses of the Hindu pantheon along with certain deities locally known as *Matas* In the rural areas, for worshipping these *Matas* such as *Bhoomian Mata, Kanthi*

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[1] *Census of India*, 1961 Vol XIX, Part I pp 255–56

[2] For further details, see *Census of India*, 1961 Vol XIX, Part V-A, Pp 161–62.

TABLE 27

Percentage distribution of persons in some of the selected Scheduled Castes in Delhi 1961[1]

Name of the Scheduled Caste	Population			Percentage		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
All Scheduled Castes	3,41,555	1,89,470	1,52,085	100 00	100 0	10.0
Balai	20,680	11,533	9,147	6 1	6.1	6 0
Bhangi	21,573	11,003	10,570	6 4	5 9	7.0
Chamar, Jatav etc	1,25,997	88,466	37,531	36 9	36 2	37.7
Chuhra (Sweeper)	3,088	1,927	1,161	0 9	1 .0	0 8
Chuhra (Balmiki)	52,743	29,045	22,698	15 5	15 9	14 9
Dhanak or *Dhanuk*	8,540	4,818	3,722	2.5	2.6	2 4
Dhobi	14,813	8,091	6,722	4 1	4 3	4.0
Julaha	11,142	9,455	7,687	5 1	5 1	5.1
Khatik	14,392	7,839	6,553	4 2	4.1	4.1
Koli	19,199	10,778	8,421	5 6	5.7	5.5
Unspecified Scheduled Castes				6 6	6.8	6.5
Other specified Scheduled Castes				6 1	6 3	5.8

[1] *Delhi District Census Handbook*, 1961 p 18. *Census of India*, 1961 Vol XIX, Part V—A pp 161–62.

Mata, Gurgaonwali-Mata, etc, separate *chabutras* dedicated to each have been constructed Similarly, the Muslims here, as elsewhere, have also faith in *pirs* and hold *urs* at their tombs. The more important of the customs and rituals performed by the Hindus and Muslims may now be taken note of

Among the Hindus, six days after the birth of the child a ceremony known as *Chatti* is performed It is believed that on this day the fate of the child is decided. Both the mother and child are bathed and given new clothes to wear After the *chatti puja* has been performed, relatives and friends are entertained to special dishes like *halwa, puri, kheer*, etc In the rural areas, the earthen lamp which is lit on the day of birth is put off on this day The next important ceremony which falls on the tenth day after the birth of the child is known as *nam karan sanskar* On this day, the *purohit* of the family performs the *havan* and suggests three first alphabets of the name, out of which one is chosen and the full name of the child decided by the family After the ceremony, a feast is given to relations and friends When the baby is forty days old, *kuan pujan* or well-worship is performed. It is generally done on the birth of a son The mother carrying the child in arms and accompanied by other women goes to the well in the evening The progress towards the well is enlivened with merry songs sung by the women After performing *puja* at the well mound, they return to the house In some parts of the city, a brass band accompanies the procession *Mundan Sanskar* is the next important ceremony This is celebrated only in case of a son, when he has his first hair-cut It is generally performed either in the first, third fifth or even seventh year Mostly, the ceremony takes place in the house, but some people take the child to the Yamuna banks or the temple of the *Gurgaon Wali Mata at* Gurgaon While the *Pandit* recites some verses the barber or *nai* cuts the hair The assembled guests are then treated to a feast The next important ceremonies, *viz*, betrothal and marriage, are dealt within the next section under Social life.

Regarding disposal of the dead the Hindus cremate their dead Infants up to the age of two are generally lowered in the Yamuna and children up to five years buried The Hindus think that the corpse should be burned at once after death The nearest relations bathe the body and put clean clothes on it, a rough stretcher-*arthi*—is made and it is shouldered by four near relations, the burden is also shared by other persons on its way to the cremation ground The eldest son or the nearest relative lits the pyre Two or three days after the cremation, the bones that remain unburnt-called *phul*—are collected and taken to he Ganga

or Yamuna. The period of mourning lasts for thirteen days when the *karya* ceremony also called *tehrmi, pugree,* etc., is performed. The friends and relations of the family attend, and a *havan* is performed. Henceforth, the *shradh* of the deceased is held every year during *kanagat*, when brahmins are fed and alms given.

Among the Muslims also, six days after the birth of the child the ceremony of *chatti* is performed, in which mainly women participate. After the mother and child have been bathed, the assembled women sing and dance. In the afternoon sweets, and presents are received from the mother's parents. The next day the ceremony called *aqiqa* takes place in the evening. The child is given a name and his hair is cut by the barber. This is also called *mundan* by the Muslims. A couple of goats are sacrificed and the meat distributed among friends and relations.[1] *Rasm-i-khatna* is the ceremony in which the boy is circumcised. This can take place any time between the age of six days to ten or twelve years. The barber who performs the operation is suitably rewarded. All the assembled guests are treated to a feast. Before the child is admitted to school, he is made to repeat a few lines from the holy *Quran*, this is known as *rasm-i-bism* allah. Sweets are distributed after the ceremony. The ceremonies connected with marriage are dealt with in the next section under Social Life.

Regarding disposal of the dead, the Muslims bury their dead. After the body has been washed, it is covered with *Kafan*,—cloth, and placed in a bier called *janaza*. It is shouldered by four relatives, the other relations and friends also take turns in carrying the bier to the graveyard. The last prayer, called *namaz-i-janaza*, is offered near the graveyard. The dead body is laid in the grave with the face towards the *kaba*. After the grave is closed, verses from the *Quran* are recited by the *Imam* and all present pray for the peace of the soul. On the fourtieth day, called *Chaliswan*, alms are distributed to the poor and a dinner given to friends and relatives.[2]

Festivals

Festivals are an important feature in the life of people both in urban and rural Delhi. They provide a change in their routine life and are a source of joy and gaiety to all. The common festivals observed by the Hindus are *Holi, Diwali, Janmasthami,*

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[1] For details, see Syed Ahmed Dehalvi's *Rasoom-i-Delhi* pp 54–76.

[2] For details, see *Ibid*, pp. 141–154.

Dussehra, Teej, Karva chauth, Basant Panchami, Shivratri, Bhaidui, or *Raksha Bandhana, Ramnavmi,* etc *Teej,* which falls in *Savan,*—July-August is mainly the festival of females. Swings are hung on trees the previous day On the festival day, women and children, attired in their best clothes, proceed to the swings Along with swinging, they sing songs of *Teej* and return late in the evening to eat the festive meals prepared earlier in the day The festival of *Karva Chauth* falls in the month of *Kartik*—October-November—and is observed by married females only, who keep fast on the day in order that their husbands may live long The *puja* is performed by the women sitting together in the afternoon, the fast is, however, broken after looking at and offering water to the moon at night

A few other festivals, such as *Basora, Guga Navmi, Dev Uthani Giras,* etc, peculiar to the villages of Delhi, may also be taken note of *Basora* falls in the month of *Chait*—March-April —and literally means festival of stale bread On the eve of the festival, all households in the villages prepare *daha*—wheat porridge, and set it aside uneaten. Next morning, they rise early, bathe and dress themselves in their best The women then go to the various *Chabutras* dedicated to the different *matas*, make offerings and return home The porridge, cooked on the preceding evening, it then offered to all the members of the family *Guga navami* is celebrated in honour of an ancient saint named *Guga Pir,* who is believed to have power over snakes The festival falls in the month of *Bhadon*—August-September The *Dev Uthani Giras,* celebrated in the month of *Kartik,* is mainly a festival of women This is observed in order to awaken the gods who are supposed to be asleep from the ninth day in *Asadh*—June-July The women keep fast on the day and late in the evening, they gather together and beat upon brass utensils to wake the gods After this, they break the fast and the special dishes prepared for the occasion are eaten

The most important festivals of the Sikhs are the two *Gurpurabs* celebrating the birthdays of Guru Nanak and Guru Gobind Singh, and others commemorating the martyrdom of Guru Arjan and Guru Teg Bahadur On the occasions of these *Gurpurabs,* processions are taken out and congregational prayers and recitation from the *Granth Sahib* are held

The Jains celebrate the birth and *nirvana* anniversaries of Parsvanath and Mahavira The principal festival of the Buddhists is the *Buddha Purnima,* the day on which the Buddha is believed

to have been born and to have attained enlightenment as well as *nirvana* On these occasions, the devout worship in their temples, read and listen to the scriptures, the Jains also take the images of the *tirthankaras* out in procession.

Christmas and Easter are the two principal festivals of the Christians The former is celebrated in honour of the birth of Jesus Christ, while the latter commemorates his resurrection. There is a lot of gaiety in Delhi at Christmas time The Christians attend services at their churches, exchange presents and hold festivities

The Muslim festivals are *Id-ul-Fitr*, following the month of *Ramzan* when the devout keep fast during day time throughout the month *Id-ul-Zuha* commonly called *bakr-id* as goats are sacrificed in the name of God, and *Id-i-Milad*, the celebration of the Prophet's birthday The *Moharram*, extending over ten days, is an occasion for mourning rather than a festival climaxing on the tenth day, when both the Shias and Sunnis commemorate the martyrdom of Imam Husain[1] *Shab-i-Barat* is celebrated with fireworks and presents of sweetmeats The *urs*, or death anniversaries of saints, have also been festive occasions The *urs* of Nizamuddin Aulia attract a very large gathering

A description of the festivals of Delhi would be incomplete without a reference to the *Phool Walon Ki Sair*. It was started in early 19th century by Queen Mumtaz Mahal, wife of the late Mughal emperor, Akbar II, as a thanks giving ceremony on the release of her son Jahangir, who had been imprisoned by the British at Allahabad She believed that the release was the result of her prayers to the saint Khwaja Bakhtiar Kaki She placed a white *Chaddar* made of flowers at the *durgah*, the Hindus offering flowers at the nearby Jog Maya Temple The emperor instituted it as a festival for both Hindus and Muslims. This symbol of India's cultural unity was revived by Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru in 1962 The procession of *Pankhas* or fans, made of roses and marigolds is accompanied by *Shehnai*, drums and dancers It starts from the Shamsi Talab, passes through Jahaz Mahal, Yog Maya Temple, and the *Durgah* of Khwaja Bakhtiar Kaki, near Mehrauli[2]

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[1] For details regarding *Moharram* Please see Appendix II

[2] *See* Mirza Farhatullah Beg's— *Phool Walon Ki Sair*.

Social Life

Family

The common family type found in Delhi in the nucleus family. It consists of the husband, wife and the children Sometimes, the old parents or an unmarried brother or sister may also live with them depending on the son's income On the other hand, through necessity a married son and his children may also stay with the parents till he can afford to start a separate establishment Thus in urban Delhi the traditional Hindu joint family is rare, though one may sometimes come across a loose type, especially among the business classes in the city In such a case, all the married sons live together but keep a separate purse and sometimes separate kitchen also, making common cause on social ceremonial occasions

In rural Delhi also, the number of nucleus families is larger than that of the joint families To cite a few examples, the percentage proportion of nucleus to joint families in the case of village Begumpur in 1961 was 60 8 to 35 per cent,[1] in case of village Bhalsua Jhangirpur 57 7 to 42 3 per cent;[2] and for village Samalkha 56.4 to 42 5 per cent [3] In the case of joint families generally the eldest male member is the head of the family, all the land and property of the family being recorded in his name His influence prevails on all other members of the family and decisions taken by him are final in all matters connected with the household In such cases all the brothers live together and farm the land jointly

But the joint families are now disintegrating rather rapidly The case of village Begumpur may be cited to illustrate the point According to the 1951 Census, the village consisted of 111 households or families The corresponding figure collected during the course of a socio-economic study of the village in September 1961 showed that its number had risen to 143, indicating a 28 8 per cent increase in the number of households over the decade 1951-61 This increase can mainly be attributed to the break up of many joint families in the village, as only three households were reported to have migrated to the village during this period[4] Earlier, a family often split up after the death of the father when the brothers sought separation and division of property

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[1] *Census of India*, 1961 Vol XIX, pt VI No 4 pp 41

[2] *Census of India*, 1961 Vol XIX, pt VI, No 1, pp 81

[3] *Census of India* 1961 Vol XIX, pt VI, No 6 pp 48

[4] *Census of India* 1961 Vol XIX pt VI No 4 pp 41-42

But now separation between fathers and sons is quite common. This is due to the reason that young couples want to avoid the tensions, the quarrelling, bickering and restraint often associated with joint family units. The growing individuality, lack of space in urban areas, the rise of living costs, migratons to urban areas in search of employment and the influence of West have combined to change the social values, thus leading to the disintegration of joint families.

Inheritance

Inheritance of property in this region was regulated by the uncodified Hindu law which was based on both customs and precedents set by various courts of law The family being patrilineal in this region, after the father's death all his sons got an equal share in the property In case sons were minors, the property went to the widow who became a trustee till the sons attained majority when the property was divided equally amongst them In the absence of any male issue, the property was inherited by the widow who could enjoy it till her death or till she remarried, but she had no right to sell it In case the wife was already dead and there was no male issue either, the brothers of the deceased inherited the property In the absence of all the above mentioned relatives, the property was inherited by the nearest male relative Daughters, whether married or single, had no share in the property, though in the case of an unmarried daughter, the person inheriting the property was bound both morally and legally to provide for her marriage

Thus, the Hindu woman was barred from owning any property in her own right A woman had rights only to *stridhana*—given to her at the time of marriage—but even this she could not alienate in her own right This economic disabiliy of women continued up to 1937 when the British passed the Hindu Women's Right to Property Act It conferred on the wife the right of enjoyment of her husband's share in the coparcenary or jointly inherited property during her lifetime, but she had no right of alienation Her ownership was thus a limited one

Now the Hindu Succession Act, 1956, provides for a uniform system for all Hindus with respect to intestate succession The Act removes the inequality between men and women as now the son daughter, widow and mother, inherit equally In the matter of adoption too, women had no choice before 1955, nor could a female child be legally adopted But now according to the Hindu

Adoption Act, 1955, a married woman can adopt a child indepen dent of her husband, provided the latter is of unsound mind, ha renounced the world, or has ceased to be a Hindu Though th law has conferred the rights to property and adoption on Hindi women yet in practice the number of women exercising thes rights is negligible, and that too in the urban areas only In rura Delhi, a vast majority of people are not even aware of the pro visions of these Acts It has been rightly observed that the Hindi Succession Act "is being observed rather in its breach" as "littl notice is being taken of it in practice "[1]

Self-earned property can, however, be willed in any way ac cording to the wishes of the person concerned But making o wills is still not popular as it is confined to an extremely small number of people The following Table will give an idea of the number of persons making wills during the years 1960-69

TABLE 28

Consolidated figures regarding the wills registered year-wise in Delhi, 1960-69

Year	Wills registered
1960	525
1961	598
1962	686
1963	823
1964	822
1965	1,095
1966	1,612
1967	1,548
1968	1,773
1969	2,016
TOTAL	11,498

[1] *Census of India*, 1961 Vol XIX, pt VI, No 6, p. 64

Regarding the Muslims, they are governed by their personal law of succession and inheritance. According to the *Quran*, the daughter was to get a share in the property of the father equal to one-half of the brother's share. But in practice, the daughter's right to inherit has been superceded by custom or customary law. The Christians, on the other hand, are governed by the Indian Christians Succession Act of 1925

Marriage

The Hindu marriage is now monogamous, the Hindu Marriage Act of 1955 having declared polygamy as illegal Till recent times, a few castes like the Jats and Gujars did indulge in polygumous marriages. But in most cases, a second wife was taken if the first was either barren or had no male issue On the other hand, a Muslim may, according to their personal law, take four wives at a time Due to economic factors, however, this practice is very much in decline A Christian is invariably monogamous. Besides, a new rule has recently been framed by which a Government employee is liable to be dismissed from service if he marries a second time without the sanction of the Government. Polyandry is unknown

Marriage among the Hindus is a sacrament, its rites being prescribed in the scriptures and to some extent, by custom and tradition Some variations in the performance of different rites by the different castes or even different families within a caste, may, however, occur Certain rules and restrictions are observed before contracting a matrimonial alliance. The general rule is that marriage should take place within one's own caste, but not in the same *gotra* the same *gotra* implies *gotra* of father, mother and paternal grandmother Besides the above marriage with maternal uncle's son or daughter is also prohibited among the northern Hindus including Hindus of Delhi In rural Delhi, another restriction observed is that marriages should take place not only outside one's own village, but also outside the village or villages where people of the same *gotra* reside

Mostly, it is the parents of the girl who have to find a suitable match for their daughter In this, they are generally helped by their relatives and friends who reside in different villages, towns and cities, or in other parts of the city itself Recourse is taken generally by the educated to matrimonial advertisements in the city's newspapers as well Previously this task was entrusted to the *nais* or brahmins, but now, even in rural Delhi, their importance is gradually declining After a suitable boy has been found,

negotiations are started either by the parents directly or through an intermediary Sometimes, the horoscopes of the boy and girl are examined to ensure that they are mentally compatible, but of late this practice is gradually dying out Earlier the boy and girl were generally seen and approved by their respective parents or near relatives But now the practice of the boy approving the girl himself, especially in the city areas, is gaining ground When both the parties agree, the date for *Sagai* or betrothal ceremony is fixed On the day so fixed, the father of the girl accompanied by his near male relations goes to the boy's place with sweets and in a simple ceremony applies *tilak* on the forehead of the boy He gives some money to the boy and also his near relations, the amount depending on his economic and social status After this, no adult member of the girl's family and relations would eat or drink in the house of the boy This practice is now on the decline, though in rural Delhi mostly and in some of the orthodox families in urban Delhi also it is still in vogue

The girl's parents next consult their *Purohit* regarding *mahurat* or the date for the wedding ceremony The proposed date is written by the *Purohit* in a letter, to which a turmeric mark and a few grains of rice are affixed called *Pili chithi* or *Lagan chithi* In the letter, the *bans* or number of oil baths to be taken by the boy and girl are also mentioned On the day of marriage, the groom is dressed in his wedding clothes and *sehra*, the *sehra* being tied by his sister's husband The groom's brother's wife applies some *surma* or collyrium to his eyes He then gets on the back of a mare to perform the ceremony of *ghur charhi* which consists of a ride to the temple to offer worship The boy's sisters follow him throwing rice accompanied by other women singing songs. After this ceremony is over, the wedding procession called *barat*, accompanied by drummers or a band party, sets off for the bride's place The *barat* in rural Delhi is solely composed of the male relatives and friends of the groom, but in the urban areas the inclusion of women as well is not uncommon Previously the marriage parties used to travel in rural Delhi in bullock-carts and tongas but now mostly like their city brethren they prefer to travel by buses and cars

The marriage party is received by the bride's father, relations and friends Then the girl's mother or some other elderly lady performs *arati* of the boy and affixes a turmeric and rice mark on his forehead The bride is next brought out of the house where she puts a *jaimala* or garland round the neck of the boy This ceremony is known as *barauthi* The marriage party is then

feasted, after which the actual ceremony called *phere* is solemnized. For this ceremony, a pavilion called *bedi* is generally set up in the courtyard of the bride's place. This ceremony is conducted by the family priest The main marriage ceremony includes *Kanya dan* and *saptpadi*. The boy and girl go round the holy fire seven times (*saptpadi*) amidst chanting of *mantras* and take vows of faithfulness towards each other At this time dowry is given which generally consists of cash, ornaments, dresses, household utensils, furniture etc, depending on the financial status of the family. The farewell ceremony is called *Vida*, after which the *barat* returns taking the bride with them The very next day, however, the brothers of the bride fetch her back to their own place. During this period, the bridegroom and the bride are not allowed to meet each other When the girl has reached the age of puberty, her parents inform the boy who comes with some male relatives to finally take the bride away This is the last ceremony in a marriage and is called *gauna* or *muklawa*, and precedes cohabitation Earlier, this ceremony used to take place in the fifth, seventh or ninth year because of the prevalance of child marriages But now as the age at marriage is increasing, the period between marriage and *gauna* is also proportionately reducing It now takes place in the first or third year at the latest The custom of *gauna* has now become almost extinct among the urban people of Delhi It is confined to the rural areas only Among the urban people the *gauna* ceremony is appended to the principal marriage ceremony

Marriage among the Sikhs has many similarities with that of the Hindus The selection of the boy is done in the same manner and the engagement ceremony is called *mangni or kurmai* As the actual marriage ceremony called *anand karaj* is performed always in the forenoon, the *barat* is taken out in some cases in the evening, while in others in the morning itself Like the Hindus, the ceremony of *ghur charhi* is also performed, the boy being taken to the Gurdwara to pay his respects Women also accompany the *barat* and sometimes even join the menfolk in dancing *bhangra* outside the bride's place The *barat* is received by the girl's father, other relations and friends Then the ceremony of *milni* takes place in which the fathers of the boy and girl embrace each other and the latter makes a small cash gift to the former The *milni* of the fathers is followed by that of the brothers and one or two uncles Before the marriage party is entertained to breakfast, the ceremony of *jaimala* is performed This is followed by the actual marriage ceremony which is presided over by the

granthi. After a brief *shabad kirtan*, the *granthi* reads the four *lanwas* and the couple walk round the *Granth Sahib* four times *Karah prasad* is distributed to the assembled guests at the conclusion of the *anand karaj* The farewell ceremony is called *doli* after which the *barat* returns taking the bride with them

Marriage among the Muslims is a contract Though under *Shariat* all Muslims are brothers yet in the early decades of this century, a Syed used to marry either a Syed or a Shaikh and a Mughal either a Mughal or a Pathan But now marriages outside the caste or *dhat*, as the Muslims call it, are quite usual Besides, a Muslim can marry anyone except the real brother, both the paternal and maternal uncles and mother's sister's husband

Unlike the Hindus, the initiative among the Muslims is always taken by the boy's side The request for the hand of the girl is conveyed to her parents through a letter, called *ruqqa*, written on golden paper and wrapped in a red handkerchief [1]

After the latter have satisfied themselves regarding the boys' family, age, education, character, etc , a date for engagement called *mangni* is fixed For this ceremony mostly female relations of the boy accompanied by a few men go to the girl's place taking presents of sweets, ornaments, betels, etc , with them After certain ceremonies,[2] a golden ring and a silver band is put on the third finger of the girl's right hand Later the same day a few relations of the girl go to the boy's house with similar gifts

The female relations of the boy again go to the girl's house after some time for the purpose of settling the date of marriage This is called *biah mangna* A few days before the marriage, the girl is taken to an inner room in the house where she stays till the actual marriage day This is called *manjon bithane* During this period, the girl does not appear before any male—not even the father or brothers The boy is also similarly confined, but only one or two days before the marriage Next follows the ceremony called *sachaq* or *hinna bandi* *Sachaq* is taken to the girl's house by the womenfolk of the boy's side and among other things it includes combs, scents, some condiments, *mehendi*, two expensive dresses which the bride wears on the marriage day and the day after, ornaments, etc After the ceremonies[3] are over,

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[1] This account is based on Syed Ahmed Dehlvi's book *Rasoom-i-Delhi* pp 79–138

[2] For details, see *Ibid* pp , 88–91

[3] For details, see *Ibid* , pp 104–107

the guests are offered *sherbat* The same day, the girl's people also take *mehndi* alongwith the dress that the boy will wear on the wedding day, as also other presents, to the boy's house. One or two days before the marriage, written or verbal invitations to friends and relatives to accompany the *barat* are extended by the boy's parents

On the day of the marriage, the groom is dressed in the wedding clothes and a *sehra* made of flowers. He rides a mare. The marriage procession starts with the band and the bridegroom leading the *barat*, the women being carried in cars and tongas The *barat* is received by the bride's relatives and the bridegroom is seated on a dais The ceremony of *nikah* then starts The *Qazi* sits opposite him along with the *Vakil* and two witnesses After *Khutba* is read, the bride's consent to marriage is formally attested by witnesses, though in practice the consent has been prearranged The bridegroom's consent is also formally asked. After *nikah*, *sherbat*, *misri* and *chuharas*—candy and dry dates, are distributed The *Qazi* enters the *nikah* in his register and prepares the *Kabin nama* or the marriage paper on which the names of the bride and groom, the *mehr* fixed, the date of marriage, etc., are written This paper is signed by the bridegroom alongwith a couple of his relations who sign as witnesses The *Qazi* also signs it and hands it over to the bride's parents After *sehra* has been recited, the assembled guests are treated to a feast. The groom is next taken inside the house for certain ceremonies[1] The concluding ceremony is called *rukhsat* when the bride is carried to a *palki*, the groom again rides the mare and the *barat* returns accompanied by band

Marriage among the Christians is regulated by the Indian Christian Marriage Act of 1872, as amended in 1952. The followers of different denominations usually observe the same general pattern with regard to marriage customs The marriage, whether it is arranged by relatives or the parties concerned themselves, is preceded by an engagement, which may be of long or short duration Banns are published three times by the priest in the church where the ceremony is to take place Marriage is solemnized by the priest in the church in the presence of near relations and invited guests of both sides The ceremony includes the giving away of the bride by the father or some other relative, the repeating aloud of the marriage vows, after the priest, by the couple, and the placing of a ring by the bridegroom on the third finger

[1] For details, see *Ibid*, pp 118-125.

of the bride's left hand. After the priest has pronounced the couple as man and wife, they sign the marriage register along with their witnesses. The couple then return home accompanied by their relatives and friends who are treated to a feast.

Dowry System

The dowry system is very much prevalent among all the communities of the Union Territory of Delhi The amount spent on dowry generally varies with the economic and social status of the person concerned In dowry, all sorts of articles, such as ornaments, clothes, utensils, other household goods, besides cash, are given Sometimes, the amount of dowry to be given by the girl's parents is decided before the marriage Large sums of money have thus to be spent if the girls are to be married to well placed boys Besides, in case the father of the bride fails to give sufficient dowry, sometimes it results in quarrels and even ill-treatment of the bride by her husband as well as the in-laws.

In rural Delhi, a socio-economic survey of the village Bhalsua *Jhangirpur in 1962 revealed that the average cost of dowry given* varied from Rs 550 in case of a *nai* household to Rs. 1,627 provided by an *ahir* family The average for the village worked out at Rs 1,289—a sum which by comparison to their per capita income was rather large[1] It may be further added that the households which did not have sufficient money for dowry had to borrow it from the money-lenders, sometimes at a very high rates of interest For the urban areas, it may be presumed that the average expenditure of parents belonging to the lower middle and middle income groups for providing dowry would be in the range of Rs 7,000 to Rs 15,000

The practice of giving, taking and demanding dowry has been declared illegal with the passing of the Dowry Prohibition Act in 1961 Any person who violates the law can be sentenced to imprisonment up to six months or to a fine up to Rs 5,000, or both But in spite of the Act the custom of dowry still persists in both urban and rural Delhi

Inter-Caste Marriage

Despite the fact that caste endogamy is very rigid, there are cases of inter-caste and inter-communal marriages taking place among the educated in urban Delhi In many such cases, the marriage is often registered as a civil marriage Spread of education and liberal ideas, economic independence of men and women,

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[1] For details, see *Census of India*, 1961 Vol XIX, pt VI, No 1, pp. 103-104

and the powerful voice raised by the Arya Samaj against caste endogamy are responsible for the breach of this age-old custom. The inter-caste marriages are not looked upon with as much disfavour by society as they were a few decades ago

In all the villages of the Union Territory of Delhi, however, inter-caste marriages are strictly tabooed[1] Any violation would lead to an expulsion from the caste Neither would that person be allowed to reside in the village, nor would any other villager of the same caste accept him or invite him on any social occasion[2].

Civil Marriages

Civil marriages in India are regulated by the Special Marriages Act of 1954. It provides a truly secular code of marriage irrespective of caste, religion or race The only condition stipulated by the Act is that a man should be over 21 years, a woman over 18, and that neither should have a spouse living at the time of marriage A marriage registrar is appointed under the Act, who registers such marriages and issues certificates The solemnization does not include any religious ceremony The procedure for a civil marriage is very simple, either of the two parties to the marriage can give notice to the registrar of their intention to marry The notice must be given 15 days before the date of the proposed marriage The notice is then exhibited on the Notice Board of the Deputy Commissioner for any objections If no objection is raised within 15 days, the marriage is performed, the parties sign the register and a marriage certificate duly signed by the registrar is issued Hindus may marry according to this Act in which case the parties will be bound by the Indian Succession Act of 1925 and not by the Hindu Succession Act of 1956 A mariage performed with religious rites can be registered under the Special Marriages Act, and this entitles the parties to a civil divorce

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[1] *Ibid*, p. 108.

[2] *Census of India*, 1961 Vol. XIX, pt. VI, No. 2, p 58

The following Table will give an idea of the number of civil marriages registered in Delhi during the years 1960-69:

TABLE 29

Civil Marriages registered in Delhi

Year	Under Hindu Marriages regn. Act, 1955	Under Special Marriages Act, 1954	Under Indian Christian Marriages Act, 1872
1960	42	93	22
1961	89	43	24
1962	111	51	27
1963	98	50	38
1964	103	85	29
1965	136	133	34
1966	117	200	32
1967	124	363	47
1968	149	380	40
1969	184	607	32

The very small number of civil marriages registered in Delhi shows that such marriages have not so far found favour among the people There is no gainsaying the fact that an overwhelming majority of marriages among all communities as elsewhere in the country, are solemnized according to the personal laws of each community at their homes, temples, mosques, gurdwaras, churches, etc People generally resort to civil marriages only when marriage under personal law becomes difficult Thus it may be said that generally civil marriages take place where the parties belong to different castes or different religions, in cases of love marriages, or in cases where the parents raise objections to the marriage These marriages, however, are confined mostly to educated parties

Marital Status

The marital figures for both males and females in different age groups based on ten per cent sample of the 1951 Census figures may be seen in the following Table :

TABLE 30

Marital status[1]

Age Groups	Unmarried		Married		Widowed		Percentage of the total sample		
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Un-married	Married	Widowed or di-vorced
0—4 . .	10,766	8,061				.	19 5		..
5—14 . . .	11,921	8,656	369	268		1	21.3	0.6	..
15—34 . .	7,158	2,703	12,308	11,164	340	267	10 2	24 3	0.6
35—54 . . .	683	160	8,729	4,933	960	1,072	0.9	14.1	2 1
55 and over	137	20	2,807	937	886	1,363	0.2	3 9	2.3
TOTAL	30,665	19,600	24,213	17,302	2,186	2,703	52.1	42.9	5.0

[1] Bopegamage—op. cit. p. 46.

It will be noticed that the highest percentage, that is 40.8 per cent of the total sample population, were unmarried persons below 15 years The figure for 1931 for the same age group was 31 per cent Thus, it is clear that there was a tendency towards the postponement of marriage to a later age in the case of young men in the urban areas This is due partly to the public disapproval of the custom of child marriage and partly to the legal prohibition contained in the Child Marriage Restraint Act, 1929[1], which provides penalties for the celebration of marriages of male children under 18 and female children under 14 years of age Since 1930, the educated boys have been found to have expressed unwillingness to be betrothed or married unless they have completed their education and are suitably settled in life This has decreased early marriages considerably and tended to raise the age of marriage, thereby reducing the period known as reproduction age both among men and women[2]

As regards the married it will be seen that the highest percentage that is 24 3 per cent of the total sample population, was in the biologically productive age group between 15-34 This number had gone down among the adults and is very low among the older people Among the widowed or divorced, the figures in the group 55 and over were generally low

The ratios of marital status for the Delhi Territory according to the 1951 Census and a comparison with a few past Censuses may now be taken up Amongst the unmarried per 1 000 males, the number had been increasing since 1921 when it was 438 It rose to 459 in 1931, 487 in 1941, as against 532 in 1951 On the other hand, the married males were found to be 464 in 1921, 465 in 1931, 453 in 1941, as against 421 in 1951. There was decrease in the number of widowed from decade to decade, it was 98 76, 60, and 47 in 1921, 1931, 1941 and 1951 res-

[1] Popularly known as the Sarda Act

[2] In 1951, there was no married infant that is person below 5 years whereas in 1901, 3 out of every 100 male infants and 2 out of the same number of females infants, were reported to be married *vide* Rao & Desai—*op cit*. p. 46.

pectively[1]. It would be interesting in this connection to compare the proportions of unmarried males to married males in Delhi city with some other cities of the country over the past Censuses. Except for the year 1951, Madras had the highest percentage of unmarried males to married males throughout the past Censuses of 1901, 1911, 1921 and 1931 followed by Delhi In 1951, because of the non-availability of the relevant data for Madras, the proportion happened to be the highest in Delhi[2].

Amongst per 1,000 females, the number of unmarried worked out to 482 in 1951, as against 425 in 1941, 376 in 1931, and 346 in 1921. Like the married females, the number of widows had been on the decrease over the past Censuses It was 133 in 1921, 107 in 1931, 82 in 1941, and worked out to 70 in 1951[3]. Comparing the widowhood figures for Delhi city with other cities, it is noticed that during the Census years 1901, 1931 and 1951, Delhi had the lowest percentage of widows among the married females[4]

A comparison of the marital status among the sexes, according to the Census of 1951, shows that the figures for unmarried among males were somewhat high, among the married, both the sexes were almost the same, and among those widowed, the figures for females were higher than those for the males. One reason put forward for latter part of the statement is that the people in Delhi still deprecate widow remarriage[5]

Passing on to the Census of 1961 the distribution of marital status of 1,000 persons of each sex in broad age groups in the Union Territory of Delhi may be seen in the following Table[6].

[1] *Census of India*, 1951. Vol. VIII, pt I-A, p 567.
[2] *Census of India*, 1961 Vol XIX, pt. II-A p. 179
[3] *Census of India*, 1951 Vol VIII, pt. I-A, p 567
[4] *Census of India*, 1961 Vol. XIX, pt. I p. 179
[5] Bopegamage—*op.cit* p. 47.
[6] *Census of India*, 1961. Vol. XIX, pt I p 201.

TABLE 31

Marital Status	Distribution of 1,000 persons of each sex							
	Males				Females			
Age-Groups .	0-14	15-34	35-59	60+	0-14	15-34	35-59	60+
Never married .	*380*	*158*	*8*	*1*	*431*	*70*	*2*	N
Married .	*1*	*207*	*188*	*29*	*5*	*282*	*136*	*12*
Widowed .	N	3	12	12	N	3	30	28
Divorced . .	N	1	N	N	N	1	N	N

It will be noticed that 54 7 per cent of the total males were in the category of 'never married', the corresponding percentage for females in this category was 50 3 Thus, there was an excess of 4 4 per cent of 'never married' males as against 'never married' females in the Delhi Territory The percentage of 'never married' females in the lowest age group O-14 years was higher than that of 'never married' males in this group by 5 1 per cent But in the age group 15-34 the percentage of 'never married' males was higher by 8 8 per cent than that of 'never married' females[1]

In the married category we find that out of the total females 43 5 per cent were married, the corresponding figures for males being 42 5 per cent Thus, the percentage of married females was higher by only 1 per cent than the corresponding percentage of married males Similarly, in the age group 15-34, the percentage of total married females is higher by 7 5 per cent than that of married males, the two corresponding figures being 28 2 and 20 7 per cent respectively But in the age group 35-59 the married males had a higher percentage—6 2 per cent—as compared to that of married females, the two corresponding figures being 18 8 and 13 6 per cent[2].

[1] *Ibid.*
[2] *Ibid.*

Widows constituted 6.1 per cent of the total females and the widowers 2.7 per cent; the percentage of the former thus exceeded the latter by 3.4 per cent The incidence of widowhood was equal for both the sexes in the age groups 15-34 and 35-59 But it was higher for the females in the age group 60 years and above Regarding the divorced persons, both the males and females constituted 0 1 per cent each and belonged to the age group 15 34[1]

Marriage Of Widows

Among the caste Hindus the marriage of widows is generally not favoured by tradition and custom. Although the Hindu Widow Marriage Act of 1856 had legalised such marriage for all castes of Hindus such marriages hardly ever took place. Even today, in urban Delhi, the percentage of widows who marry is extremely small. Among the Muslims, the marriage of widows is permitted by their personal law, but such marriages are not very common The marriage of widows is generally allowed among the Christians also In backward and scheduled castes, a woman being a help and an extra earning member, widow marriage is, therefore common among them

It was mentioned by the old Gazetteer of Delhi that second marriages of widows known as *karao* or *karewa*, were practised by most of the 'Hindu tribes'—Jats, Gujar, Ahirs, etc. The *karao* of a Muslim widow was called *nikah sani*,—second marriage For the Hindu *Karao*, there was no other ceremony than that of collecting the brotherhood and in their presence putting a veil over the new wife, with *churis* The *karao* wife was in all respects a legitimate wife, and her sons inherited with those of the wife married by *shadi* *Karao* was not usually made within a year of the husband's death[2]

This form of widow marriage is being practised in rural as well as some parts of urban Delhi even today. It is permitted by all castes except the Brahmins and the Baniyas, though among them also under the influence of the Arya Samaj orthodox restrictions to it are losing ground[3] No compulsion is ever exercised on the widow for remarriage If she wishes to remain

[1] *Ibid*

[2] *Gazetteer of Delhi District*, 1912. p 61

[3] *Census of India*, 1961, Vol XIX, pt VI, No 1 p. 30.

in the same family and there is a younger brother of the deceased husband, she is given liberty to marry him if he is willing to accept her. In such a case, no regular marriage ceremony takes place, the widow is simply covered by the man with a sheet of cloth in the presence of near relations The husband generally gets a small cash gift from the girl's father Although it is an offence under the Indian Penal Code to contract a second marriage while the first wife is living, yet the villagers do not consider this as a regular marriage and thus claim that they do not break the law by having a second or a third wife through *karewa*[1]

Divorce

There is more than one legal system regulating divorce, as also marriage, in India; the dissolution of marriage in the different communities being regulated either by customary law or by special legislation But now the overwhelming majority come under the provisions of the Hindu Code Bill of 1955, which applies to Hindus, Sikhs, Jains and Buddhists—over 85 per cent of the population, and the Civil Code of 1954 which applies optionally to all persons residing in India or subject to Indian jurisdiction

Hindu marriages performed under Vedic rites were indissoluble till the Hindu Code Bill of 1955 Despite the fact that no legal provision for divorce existed among the Hindus prior to 1955, among most of the backward and scheduled castes divorce could be brought about by permission of the caste panchayat and the divorced woman was allowed to remarry Now for the first time in the history of the Hindus, the sanctions of the customary law were done away with, and a uniform law was made applicable to all Hindus The Act permits divorce either by husband or wife Besides this the provisions for divorce as provided under the Special Marriages Act of 1954, are among the most progressive in the world It allows for divorce by mutual consent without imputation of misconduct against either party Also, the divorced person has the right of remarriage after the lapse of one year from the date of the decree of divorce

[1] Similar socio-economic studies of over a dozen other Delhi villages have been published under the Census of 1961 This form of widow re-marriage is met with in almost all the villages thus a studied. The *Sikligars* of Delhi, however, call this form of widow re-marriage as *balthane*. *vide* Census of India, 1961. V I, pt V-B(iv)—the *Sikligars* of Delhi, p. 13.

An idea of the number of divorce cases in Delhi during the years 1955 to 1969 may be had from the following Table:

TABLE 32

Year	No. of cases
1955	102
1956	109
1957	270
1958	281
1959	304
1960	348
1961	348
1962	401
1963	385
1964	362
1965	443
1966	479
1967	490
1968	554
1969	538
TOTAL	5,414

Islam was perhaps the only religion of the time to treat marriages a purely social and contractual obligation. A Muslim husband in India divorces his wife by simply pronouncing the word *talak* three times. A divorced Muslim wife cannot get any maintenance from her husband as, in theory, she has been provided for at the time of her marriage by fixation of *mahr*. This *mahr*—whether it be Rupees 50 or 50,000—is all she gets. In order to mitigate the unequal position of the Muslim wife, the British enacted the Dissolution of Muslim Marriages Act, 1939, under which the wife could claim a divorce from her husband under certain conditions enumerated in the Act. But unlike the

husband, she is required under the Act to establish her case in court before she can obtain a divorce.

Passing on to the Indian Christians, we find that they are governed by the Indian Divorce Act of 1869 A Christian husband in India can obtain a divorce from his wife only if he can prove that she has committed adultery A Christian wife, on the other hand has to show that the husband's conduct is not merely adulterous but also cruel or that he has committed incestuous adultery, or bigamy with adultery or adultery with desertion for two years or more Grounds for judicial separation are desertion cruelty and adultery Impotence and lunacy at the time of marriage and bigamy result in a declaration of nullity

The Indian Divorce Act 1869 is an outdated piece of legislation as it discriminates between husband and wife It was based mainly on the principles of the Matrimonial Causes Act of 1857 in England However in England the law relating to divorce has undergone considerable change with new grounds for divorce and nullity being added and additional powers conferred on divorce courts for granting relief It may be pointed out in this connection that the Law Commission appointed by the Government of India has also recently recommended amendment of the Act of 1869 in order to conform with present day conditions

Economic Dependence Of Women And Their Place In Society

After Independence the Indian Parliament sought to remove the legal disabilities of Indian women by passing several Acts The first instalment of the Hindu Code Bill, the Hindu Marriage Act, not only prohibited polygamy but granted the right to divorce to women as well With regard to inheritance rights, the Hindu Succession Act of 1956 put women on an equal footing with men Now women are given absolute control over their property no matter how acquired Another important change was the recognition of the right of the daughter and her children to succeed equally with the son and his children to all the property of either parent In the matter of adoption too, women had no choice before 1956 But according to the Hindu Adoption and Maintenance Act, 1955, a married woman can adopt a child under certain circumstances The legal rights of maintenance for women were also recognised by the Act, under which a wife has right to maintenance even when she is separated from her husband The Suppression of Immoral Traffic

Act, 1956, the Women and Children's Licensing Act, 1956, the Dowry Prohibition Act, 1961, etc, may also be mentioned in this connection

But rights have meaning only when they can be practically exercised, as legislation cannot by itself achieve social progress. The percentage of women in the Territory of Delhi who are even aware of the rights conferred on them by the law is very meagre It is only a few educated women belonging to the middle and upper middle classes that try to exercise their rights in cases of succession, property, divorce, etc. Education as a means of getting paid employment has brought about far-reaching changes in the position of women The last few years have seen an appreciable increase in Delhi in the number of women in the various hierarchies of the administrative services, and the professions especially teaching and medicine, besides secretaries, sales girls, etc The economic hardships due to the developing economy have also made a contribution by bringing about a realization of the worth of the working woman in middle class families[1] For it is only when a woman has the ability to create wealth and to use it that she can fully achieve her rightful status in society The working wife it has been noticed, exercises a greater role in the family matters, especially in financial matters, than a woman who is neither working nor educated Thus, the need to accelerate education and employment of women hardly needs to be emphasized Until that happens, legislation for their benefit—no matter how enlightened—can only remain a dead letter Progress must come from the removal of ignorance and women's economic dependence on men

The vast majority of women in Delhi, as elsewhere in the country, are not economically self-supporting They mostly look after their homes and hearths, and thus belong to the category of non-earning dependents The Census figures for 1961 reveal that non-workers consisted as much as 93 5 per cent of the total females in the Union Territory of Delhi A comparison with other States and Union Territories showed that Delhi had the highest percentage of non-working females[2] In the Delhi town group comprising D M C urban, New Delhi and Delhi Cantonment, the number of female workers in 1961 was only 46,068 - the proportion per thousand females being 45 only[3]

[1] No wonder almost half the matrimonial advertisements appearing in the city's newspapers today mention the work and salary of the prospective bride

[2] *Census of India*, 1961 Vol XIX, pt I P. 274.

[3] *Ibid*. p. 275.

Thus, workers among females constituted only 4.5 per cent of the total females in Delhi town group as compared to 6.5 per cent of the total population of Delhi Territory The tract-wise percentage figures for female workers in Delhi may be seen in the following table

TABLE 33

Tract	Female workers as a percentage of female population
Delhi Total	6 5
Delhi Rural	22 0
Delhi Urban	4·5
D.M.C. Urban	4 1
New Delhi	7·5
Delhi Cantt.	3 7

It is interesting to observe that the percentage of female workers in rural Delhi is almost five times that of urban Delhi

Prostitution

Prostitution has been in existence in Delhi, as elsewhere, since ancient times Its great patron has been the feudal society It is said that during the last hundred years or so, prostitution was regarded as a decent profession, as many of the prostitutes catered to the needs of the noblemen The sons of the latter were sent to them for learning the art of polite behaviour and social etiquette[1] Besides, entertainments by dancing girls in functions like marriages, engagements, births etc., were quite in vogue In fact, the richer folk vied with one another in having renowned dancing girls performing at their functions Some of the dancing girls became concubines of the upper strata of society but they considered themselves superior to those who earned their living by sex

During the 19th century, Delhi had licensed prostitutes who were required to go through a medical check-up every week at

[1] Bopegamage—*opcit p* 178

a hospital situated behind the Jama Masjid where the municipal dispensary is located now.

During the pre-partition days, Delhi had brothels restricted to the walled city. The professionals hardly came out of the city walls. In the evening the entire Chawri Bazar area used to reverberate to the sound of dance and music. This was the Delhi of "*jaam, saqi and paimana*". There was nothing "immoral" or of "traffic" about the dancing girls. A professor of Persian told of his first visit to a dancing girl in 1947. Wanting to test her knowledge, he requested her to sing a composition of Hafiz or Saidi, the greatest of Persian poets. "Sire, Hafiz and Saidi may be beyond our understanding. I shall present a Persian composition of mine", she said. The professor was astounded.

The G B Road came into existence in 1932 as an alternate site for those dancing and singing girls who held their *mujrahs* in the Chawri Bazar. The dancers hardly number about 150 now. Several claim to be the descendants of the dancers of the erstwhile princely states. They claim that they are not prostitutes, but *tawaifs* with a respectable background, for dancing and singing are respectable arts. They, however, lament that men who had a taste for *mujrah* are gone, their patrons of today being "common place and vulgar"[2]

It is difficult to estimate the total number of brothel houses and prostitutes to be found in Delhi now. The Census of 1931 counted 325 persons as "procurors and prostitutes". The number must have risen many times since then. In 1957, Dr A Bopegamage estimated the total to be above 1,200[3]. In 1970, according to an unofficial estimate, there were above 500 prostitutes in the G B Road area alone[4]. According to yet another estimate[5], there are over 6,000 professionals and an equal number of amateurs. Among the professionals, there are about 1,500 call girls.

It is the job of the underworld to procure girls for trade in flesh. Kidnapping has been common in the old days. Now agents posing as rich men living in cities, marry innocent village girls and abandon them in brothels after getting a fee ranging

[1] *The Hindustan Times*, Aug. 11, 1972.

[2] *The Illustrated Weekly of India*, Nov. 26, 1972 p. 16

[3] Bopegamage—*op cit* p 177.

[4] *The Statesman*, April 12, 1970.

[5] *The Illustrated Weekly of India*, Nov 26, 1972 p. 16.

from Rs. 300 to Rs. 3,000[1] While girls in the age group 10 to 40 remain in these brothels, the older women are abandoned to their fate They become either procurors or act as escorts for young girls for outdoor assignments There are over 2,000 brothels spread all over the city, Shahdara and Gandhi Nagar, the trans-Jamuna area of Delhi, having the maximum number of professionals The Suppression of Immoral Traffic in Women and Girls Act of 1956 has scattered them and police patrolling has led to a thinning of touts and pimps According to the police, these self-appointed "toughs" take away about 50 per cent of the earnings[2] Under the Act, they can be sent to prison up to a maximum of two years or fined up to Rs 1,000 or both

This genre of prostitution however, does not unduly perturb the police, for they can be seen and felt It is instead the clandestine prostitution that the police are really up against Being very lucrative, it is well organised The expertise in circumventing the law is such as to frustrate not only the enforcement agencies but hoodwink also the social and reformist societies currently in the field[3]

This more sophisticated call girl system suits travellers and careful husbands Colonies of South Delhi are earning a notoriety for this type It has no exact location, the places of its practice change A few clandestine night clubs have sprung up which look after the members' "needs" Similarly, some restaurants provide "cabins" for families, the family can be made up if one is alone In residential areas, the prostitutes have hired bungalows and regulate their clientele through appointments on the telephone Some among them work as carriers of drugs and narcotics Not all call girls however, wait to be called, some solicit in hotels and clubs, some at conventions and conference, some in taxis and some even on the streets According to the Secretary of the *Nari Raksha Samiti* 40 per cent of clandestine prostitution is among educated, middle class women[4]. Such women are difficult to identify and are becoming more numerous

The Suppression of Immoral Traffic Act, 1956, has been on the statute book for over 17 years now But its enforcement has rather been short of the desirable objectives The following Table will illustrate the point

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[1] *Ibid*

[2] & [3] *The Statesman*, April, 12, 1970

[4] *Ibid.*

TABLE 34

Number of cases registered and convicted under Suppression of Immoral Traffic Act, during the years 1960-1969[1]

Year	Reported	Cancelled	Untraced	Pending Investigation	Challaned	Convicted	Persons arrested	Discharged	Pending Investigation	Challaned	Convicted
1960	73				73	27	95			95	30
1961	93				93	48	169			169	70
1962	95	..	3		92	32	136	2		134	35
1963	59	1	2		56	13	151			151	18
1964	48				48	7	130			130	16
1965	94				94	15	174			174	22
1966	68				68	13	147			147	20
1967	47				47	18	88			88	21
1968	40				40	9	135	6		129	11
1969	45			1	44	7	204	8	4	192	7

[1] Figures supplied by the Inspector General of Police, Delhi.

The figures in the Table above are illuminating. 94 were challaned under the Act in 1965, but only 15 were convicted. The incidence of challans dropped progressively over the years till 1969 when seven were convicted out of the 45 cases. The major hurdle has been to clearly define prostitution. For instance, it is stipulated that there should be two reliable independent witnesses, one a woman, who must testify to the act of prostitution and trafficking as defined. A few social workers do accompany the police and that accounts for the odd conviction. But women, even social workers, are loathe to accompany the police on raids.

The low grade prostitute has to be rehabilitated. The law can merely help in the rescue, rehabilitation depends on the degree of awareness in society and the extent of help that social organisations can render. The *Nari Niketan* is intended to open a new chapter through reformation. Marriages are encouraged, even arranged, but more often than not the constraints of society are such that the rescued women are back where they started. The Association for Moral and Social Hygiene organises seminars in various populated centres to drive home how pimps allure impressionable minds, of their seductive ways, and the dangers of prostitution. The Association does run rescue homes and venereal diseases clinics. It claims that call girls and women of easy virtue are the major sources of infection.

Drinking And Gambling

There is only partial prohibition in Delhi since 1956, both country and foreign liquors being sold openly. By partial prohibition is meant that while drinks can be brought freely in the markets they cannot be consumed in public. Thus, there is no restriction on drinking in private houses and for members of those clubs which have bar licences. These clubs in addition, have guest nights, generally once a week or on festivals, when members are permitted to entertain their guests with drinks. Besides this, guests staying in the city's hotels which have bar licences, are also permitted to drink in the hotel bars or in their rooms. Earlier, every Tuesday and Friday, the first of every month, and all holidays due to religious festivals, used to be dry days. Now there is some relaxation in the dry days, every Wednesday, the first of every month, and all holidays due to religious festivals, are dry days. Among the foreign liquors, beer and gin are in great demand during the summer months and rum, whisky and brandy during the winter season. Their sale is to be seen to be believed.

The foreign liquors being expensive, their use is limited to the middle and upper middle classes. Country liquor, being comparatively cheaper, is consumed by the lower middle and other poorer sections of society. A large variety of country liquor is available at the Government-run country liquor shops, and among its patrons may be counted the truck, bus and scooter-rickshaw drivers, mechanics, petty businessmen, shopkeepers, etc The needs of the poorest sections of society are catered to by those engaged in illicit distillation Working stills are found in the densely populated areas of the city, the *jhuggi-jhonpri* colonies, the trans-yamuna colonies, etc They keep on shifting for fear of police detection and raids This being a lucrative trade, unscrupulous persons do not even hesitate to sell ordinary methylated spirit mixed with other injurious chemicals like French polish etc In 1972, there were over a hundred deaths reported in Delhi due to some such "killer drink", while some others lost their eyesight

A brief reference to the use of drugs may also be made here The sale of *bhang*, *ganja*, *sulfa* opium, etc. is regulated by the Government licensed shops. The use of these drugs was earlier confined to the poorer classes, but due to the influence of the 'hippie cult' some members of the student community in Delhi have taken to smoking pot

A common offence associated with drinking is gambling which manifests itself fully especially during the Diwali festival Card games as also dice with varying stakes are very popular in Delhi both among the rich and the poor. All the clubs in Delhi have separate tables for bridge, flush and rummy. Tambola also called "Housie" is also very popular in the clubs, especially on the guest nights Another facility for gambling or betting on on games of chance is afforded by the Delhi Race Cluh located near the Safdarjang tomb. Horse-racing is managed by this Club and the races are held on Sundays and other holidays. Racing is popular among the upper income groups only The average attendance ranges around a 1,000 persons, four-fifths attending in the upper and more expensive enclosures[1]

Home Life

According to the Census of 1961, there were 4,97,528 Census houses in the Union Territory of Delhi, out of which nearly 97 per cent were occupied; only 3 per cent being found vacant Out

[1] Bopegamage—*op cit*. P. 173.

of the total number of 481, 729 occupied Census houses, 86.7 per cent were in urban Delhi and 13 3 per cent in rural Delhi. Within urban Delhi, the D M C urban tract had 72 9 per cent houses, New Delhi 11 8 per cent, and Delhi Cantonment 2 0 per cent. Of the total number of occupied Census houses, 80.8 per cent were used for residential purposes, either exclusively or combined with other purposes The average number of persons per house worked out at 6 8 persons for the Delhi Territory as well as its rural and urban areas, 7 2 persons for the D M C urban tract, 5 0 persons for New Delhi and 5 03 persons for Delhi Cantonment[2] A comparison of the average number of persons per house in Delhi with some of the other cities in the country revealed that Delhi city had the highest average among them[3]

Types Of Dwellings In Rural Delhi

The housing pattern of rural Delhi is largely conditioned by the economic resources of the individual householder and the availability of the building material in and around the village In the same village, one may find beautiful double storeyed houses as also poorly built mud hut with thatched roofs It may, however, he pointed out here that the housing pattern in the villages located in the Mehrauli block is different from the other rural areas Due to the abundance of stone here, most of the houses are built of stone[4]

On the basis of the purpose for which the structures are used, they can be classified into three categories, *viz*, *ghar*, or house, *baithak* or sitting room and *gher*, or cattleshed The house serves as the residential structure for all members of the family Here food is cooked and household goods are kept It is mainly meant for the females, and except for the male members of the family itself, no outsider has access to it The *baithak* is meant for the exclusive use of the male members of the family, the female members being not expected to go there It also serves as a sort of guest house and in case any visitor wishes to stay overnight, he is put up there Generally, the *baithak* is constructed away from the residential house, though it can be adjacent to the latter also The cattleshed is generally

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[1] *Census of India*, 1961 Vol. XIX, Pt IV p 5

[2] *Ibid*

[3] *Ibid*. p. 41.

[4] *Ibid* p 104

constructed in the open yard of the residential house. It is provided with pegs to tie the animals and mangers to feed them. It may, however, be added that a particular structure need not be exclusive; it may be used for more than one purpose, a *ghar* may also include a cattleshed, a *baithak*, or both.

On the basis of the material used in their construction, the houses can be divided into three categories, *viz*, *kuchha*, *pucca*, and mixed. A *kuccha* house is made of mud walls with the roof covered with straws In the case of a *pucca* house, burnt bricks with mud, cement or lime constitute the wall material, while stone slabs or bricks are used with lintels to cover the roof. The floor may be paved with bricks or it may be left *kuccha* Lastly, a mixed house may have its walls *kuccha* and roof *pucca* or vice-versa[1]

Types Of Dwellings In Urban Delhi

Houses in the city of Delhi may be grouped broadly into several types according to the number of floors The three or more storey houses are found in the central business district of the city and Darya Ganj In the city they are mostly located along the zig zag dark lanes, running from the main thoroughfare, Chandni Chowk[2] In size, each house is generally big; having 50-60 rooms, with about 15 rooms on each floor The ground floor rooms are used as shops or godowns, the first and second floors are rented out to commercial firms, and the third and fourth are either put to professional use by doctors, lawyers, etc, or used as residences In Darya Ganj, on the other hand, each floor in a block of three storey houses has 3-5 flats, each flat consisting of two rooms, kitchen, bath room and lavatory While this type of houses in the city lack fresh air and light and have no open spaces or yards, those in Darya Ganj are not only well ventilated but in the centre of a group of blocks, there is a playground

The two storey houses are situated in Kashmire Gate, Naya Bazar and Sadar Bazar In this category also, the ground floor is used as show rooms or godowns, the first floor for agencies and other commercial firms, and the top floor for residence The next type are the one storey houses, the old ones being

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[1] For details regarding the construction of the three types of houses, see *Ibid* pp 103-5.

[2] This account is based on Dr. Bopegamage's classifications *op cit* pp. 70-87

located in Matia Mahal, Chitli Qabar, Bazar Sita Ram, Hauz Kazi, Paharganj, Pul Bungash, etc., and the new ones in Jawahar Nagar, Kamla Nagar, Roop Nagar, Shakti Nagar, Model Basti, Karol Bagh, etc. Each flat in a block in the new areas generally consists of two rooms, a balcony, kitchen, bathroom and lavatory. There are lawns and open spaces between the groups of houses. But in the old areas, mnay of these houses are situated in *cul-de-sacs* and, in some cases, even, lack basic amenities. Such houses have 4-5 rooms on each floor with whole families residing in one room.

Passing on to the single floor houses, the old tenement type is found in Bara Hindu Rao, Shidipura, Beadonpura, etc. Each house has a row of rooms, about 5 or 6, each room being occupied by a family. Mostly there is no verandah, the front door opening directly into the narrow lane. The old single floor bungalow type houses are located in the Civil Lines area. Each house is big with spacious lawns both in the front and back. The outhouses in each bungalow are used either as garages or as living quarters for servants.

The last type is that of shacks which may be seen in several areas of the city—Gun-ki Mandi, Anand Parbat, Jangpura, Idgarh-Jhandewala, Karol Bagh, Roshanara Road, etc. Each shack consists of one room only and is occupied by a family. Sometimes, a common backwall is used to construct a row of shacks. A good many unauthorised *bastis* that have sprung up at many open spaces all over Delhi with small thatched huts, may also be mentioned in this connection. They are known as *jhuggi-jhonpri* colonies.

The houses in New Delhi were built to a certain plan. They may be grouped under two different types,—the one storey and single floor houses, and also into two sizes as big or small. The one storey bigger size type is found in Connaught Place, Kasturba Gandhi Marg, Barakhamba Road, Prithviraj Road, Akbar Road, etc. In Connaught Place the ground floor of each semi-circular building is used for shops and show rooms, the first floor being either let out to commercial firms or sometimes used as residence. The houses on "The roads mentioned above are mostly used for residential purposes. Most of them have spacious well ventilated rooms with spacious lawns around them. They are generally inhabited by one or two families, each occupying one floor. The same applies to the houses in Sunder Nagar, Golf Link, Jor Bagh, Maharani Bagh, Friends' Colony, etc.

The single floor big type of houses are found in the area between Janpath and Parliament Street. They have spacious living rooms, wide verandahs, and lawns, both in the front and back. They are mostly occupied by single families The small single floor houses of this type may be found scattered in such colonies as Kailash, Defence, South Extension, Green Park, Hauz Khas, Vasant Vihar, Shantiniketan, West End, etc They have 2-4 bed-rooms with attached baths, a big drawing-dining room, separate accommodation for servants built generally over a garage, and lawns in the front Mostly they are occupied by single families

A description of the houses in New Delhi would be incomplete without a reference to the houses built by the Central Government for its employees. These houses before 1947 were mainly confined to two areas, the Delhi Imperial Zone located around Gole Market, and the Minto Road areas Here we find single floor small blocks of houses separated into two halves; each half consisting of a sitting room, two bed rooms, kitchen, lavatory, etc., with verandah and a closed backyard Another type of single floor small tenement houses was built in a row round a rectangular lawn The total number of rooms in each group of tenements varies from 2-3, with a kitchen, lavatory, etc. with verandah and a walled backyard Then there are separate single room tenements for the class IV staff of the Government. Single employees of the Government were accommodated in chummeries During the War, the Lodhi Colony was developed which also provided graded accommodation, all the houses being one storeyed

After 1947, the need for providing additional residential accommodation resulted in the construction of many new colonies such as Vinay Nagar, Man Nagar, Kaka Nagar, Pandara Road, Bapa Nagar, Shahjahan Road, Moti Bagh, Bharti Nagar, Ramakrishnapuram, etc. In these colonies, we find multistoreyed, three storeyed and one storeyed buildings, and small free standing houses The multistoreyed buildings are located on Kasturba Gandhi Marg Shahjahan Road and the Ring Road In the latter two areas, the flats have three bedrooms in addition to a big drawing-dining room, two bathrooms, kitchen, verandah, etc. The Curzon Road apartments, on the other hand, are much smaller. Each block is served by two lifts The three storeyed houses are to be found in Ramakrishnapuram and near Gole Market There are two flats on each landing, each having 2-3 rooms, kitchen, bathroom, etc. The one-storeyed houses are found scattered over all these

colonies having graded accommodation The small free standing houses are located on Pandara Road, Shahjahan Road, etc. The latter built in the style of Italian villas, have spacious rooms along with spacious lawns

Lastly, a brief reference to the displaced persons' colonies may also be made They are located all around the city, Gandhi Nagar in Shahdara in the east, Rajendra Nagar, Patel Nagar, Moti Nagar, Ramesh Nagar, Tilak Nagar, etc in the west, Malkaganj, Kingsway Vijay Nagar etc, in the north, and Nizamuddin, Jangpura, Lajpat Nagar, Kalkaji, Malviya Nagar, etc, in the south There are mainly three types of houses in these colonies—the bungalow type, the one or two storey tenement type, and the small one floor tenement type The bungalow type houses have generally three rooms kitchen, bathroom, etc, with small lawns In the one and two storey tenement houses, there are three rooms on each floor with a separate bathroom and lavatory The small one floor tenement houses have either one or two rooms and are built in a row, generally on either side of lanes In addition to kitchen, bath and lavatory, these houses have small front and backyards also The size and pattern of each type of these houses is more or less uniform in most of the refugee colonies

Furniture And Decoration

In the rural houses of Delhi furniture and decoration are generally of the barest minimum Besides, the little furniture owned by the villagers is both traditional and indigenous *Khatia* or cot is the only article of furniture that is invariably owned by every household in rural Delhi irrespective of social and economic status The strings for *khatia* are made by the villagers themselves out of the hemp grown in the fields It is the most commonly used article of furniture and serves both for sitting and sleeping purposes The possession of other articles of furniture such as chair, table stool, bench, *pedha* or wooden plank, *moorha*, etc, is an exception rather than the rule The *moorha*, made of straw, reeds, and jute, has become very popular in the villages The quality of the other items is very inferior as they are mostly made in the villages themselves The more well-to-do households, in addition may possess *nivar* beds with looking glasses attached, arm chairs hurricane lamps, gramophones radio sets, transistors etc Regarding decoration, the only items that are found are crude clay toys, pictures of Hindu deities, clay idols, etc

In urban Delhi also, the items and quality of furniture, as also other accessories and decorations in the houses, vary according to the family's financial and social status But generally, the items of furniture most commonly used are beds, small tables and chairs, *takhts* or divans, *moorhas*, almirahs, meat safes, etc. Those who can afford have curtains on the doors and windows as well as carpets or *durrees* On the walls, colourful calendars, pictures of deities or scenery are also found In the Christian homes, pictures of the Christ, Virgin Mary, etc, are hung on the walls, whereas the Muslims have the sacred number 786, sketches of Mecca and Medina or the *Kalma* are also framed In the recent years, steel furniture has become very popular on account of its economic prices, portability and durability In some of the older families of Delhi city, especially among the Muslims, the practice of having a sitting room furnished with *durrees*, carpets, and pillows—*masnad*, is still prevalent

In the houses of the richer persons, on the other hand, each room has its appointed furniture The drawing room is furnished in Western style with carpets, sofa sets, settees, curtains, centre table, peg-stools, etc Cushions are kept on the settees and the backs of the sofas and chairs covered with embroidered cloth Sometimes, television sets, radiograms, etc, are also kept in the drawing room In addition, specimens of art made of ivory, brass, wood, etc, along with flower vases and ash trays add lustre to the decor While the dining room is furnished with a dining table and chairs, a side-board, refrigerator, etc, the bed-rooms have beds with Dunlopillo mattresses, wardrobes, dressing table and arm chairs Framed photographs and paintings, either original or reproductions, adorn the walls of the various rooms.

Household Utensils

The general name for household vessels is *bartan*, the earthen ones being collectively known as *basan*, and the metal ones *kasan* The old Gazetteer of the Delhi District listed the following items [1]

1 *Bartna* (called *degchi* by Muslims), a small pan of brass for cooking *dal*, etc

2. *Tokni* (called *degcha* by Muslims) a large pan of brass for cooking rice, etc

[1] *Gazetteer of Delhi District*, 1912 p 95.

3 *Tokna* (called *deg* by Muslims), the same but large

4. *Thali* (called *rikabi* by Muslims), a metal plate

5 *Bela* or *Katora* (called *pyala* by Muslims), a big cup of brass or *kansi* for drinking milk, butter-milk, *sherbat*, etc It is called *katori* when of a smaller size.

6 *Lota* or *banta* (called *badna* by Muslims), a small pot of brass for drinking water, taking bath, etc

7. *Abkhora*, a small tumbler of brass

8 *Chamcha*, a spoon of brass

9 *Parat* (called *tabuk* by Muslims), a tray of brass for kneading flour

10 *Bilomini*, a churn.

11 *Tawa*, an iron griddle for cooking bread

12 *Chimta*, the iron tongs

Two other items mentioned in the old Gazetteer are *chakki* - a grinding mill, and *painda* or *matka*,— an earthen vessel in which water for household drinking is kept[1]

Almost all the utensils enumerated above are still being used by the people of Delhi A few more items, such as *karchi*-big spoon, *gilas*-metal tumbler *chakla* and *belan*—wooden plate and roller, *karahi*– an iron or brass pan used for frying, etc, *tokni*—a metal pitcher to store water, *balti* --bucket, *chalni*—sieve, *handi* — an earthen vessel used for boiling milk and storing ghee, etc, now being commonly used, may also be mentioned The use of enamel ware is common in Muslim as well as some Christian families Besides, aluminium wares being comparatively cheaper, are gradually replacing brass and copper utensils The same applies to certain plastic wares as well But in the affluent families in the city, vessels made of stainless steel are in great use today Another item in great demand in the city today is the pressure cooker as it not only saves time and fuel but preserves the food value as well The use of crockery is very common in the city, people in the rural areas also are using some cheaper varieties The use of cutlery as also silver utensils is confined to the richer people

[1] *Ibid.*

Fuel

Dried cow-dung cakes called *uple* is the most important fuel used by Delhi's villagers. It is invariably used by all the families in the village irrespective of their economic and social status This is because it is easily available and costs nothing. Cow-dung cakes are prepared by females and young children and dried in open spaces. The dried cow-dung cakes are stored in *batooras*, which are hut-shaped enclosures made of thick layers of cow-dung itself, and taken out whenever required The other fuel worth mentioning is wood which is collected from the fields Sometimes reeds and straw gathered from the bushes in the fields are also used as fuel Coal is used only on important occasions like marriages, etc The use of kerosene stoves is so rare that in village Begumpur only one household had such a stove, and that too was used on important occasions[1] The Ambarhai village had three families owning kerosene stores[2]

In the urban areas of Delhi, on the other hand, a large number of families use charcoal and soft coke as also oil stoves. The use of electric stoves, hot-plates, etc, is confined to the richer section In the last 15 years or so, cooking gas as a fuel has been introduced in Delhi A very large number of lower middle, middle and upper class families have either already acquired gas stoves or are gradually changing over to them

Food

A large majority of Delhi's rural population take vegetarian food, the taking of meat is socially considered to be the stigma of lower castes like *Julahas*, *Chamars*, *Bhangis*, etc But in recent years, a few young men amongst the socially higher castes have also started taking meat, though due to the fear of the censure of society, they do so either secretly or when they go out of the village. Generally, the villagers take three meals in summer and two in winter The staple diet of the people in the villages of Delhi is wheat, gram, barley, maize *bajra* and *jawar* While the economically better off take wheat and *gochani* — mixture of wheat and gram — in summer and *bajra* in winter, the poorer take *bejhad* — mixture of wheat barley and gram — in summer and *bajra* and *jawar* in winter.

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[1] *Census of India*, 1961. Vol. XIX, pt VI, No. 4, p. 13.

[2] *Census of India* 1961 Vol. XIX, pt. VI, No. 5, p. 14.

The other common edibles on the menu of the villagers are pulses like *urd*, *moong*, *chana*, *arhar*, etc., and vegetables like potatoes, turnips, spinach, tomatoes, pumpkins, *tindas*, carrots, peas, etc. In winter, *sag* prepared from green mustard leaves — *sarson* — is eaten almost every day by all villagers. A family, irrespective of its economic condition, generally takes only one dish, either pulse or vegetable, with *chapatis*. The poorer sections who cannot afford even this take their food with *chutni*, prepared from crushed onion, mint, chillies, and salt. While the well-to-do families use pure ghee, the poorer ones use vegtable oils. The households which own milch cattle also take milk, curd, butter butter-milk etc. The left over butter-milk is sometimes given to the low caste families. Thus, practically the food of the villagers has not any variety, common delicacies such as *halwa*, *poori*, *khir*, etc., are prepared only on festive occasions or on the visit of a guest. A passing reference to the increasing popularity of tea in rural Delhi may also be made here. It is interesting to note that the villages mostly use *gur* in place of sugar in tea.

In the urban areas of Delhi also a majority of the people are vegetarians even those who take non-vegetarian food do so occasionally. The Muslims and Christians are as a rule non-vegetarians. A large number of the Punjabis and Sikhs, as also the Bengali residents of Delhi, are non-vegetarians. The items included in each meal as also the number of meals in a day depend upon the economic status of the family. In addition to the two main meals lunch and dinner the well-placed city folk start the day with bed-tea, followed by breakfast, a cup of tea with light refereshment being taken in the afternoon also. The poorer sectiors of the population, on the other hand, may just have two meals in the day with some tea and a left over *chapati* in the morning. The breakfast in a well to-do family may consist of milk, cereals, egg and toast and tea or coffee. Some households may prefer to have *prathas* with curd or *lassi* or *pooris* with a vegetable instead. The menu at lunch time generally is *chapatis* and/or rice taken with a *dal* and/or vegetable and curd. Sometimes, in place of *dal* or the vegetable the non-vegetarians might have a mutton dish or fish instead. The food at dinner is generally similar to that at lunch in most homes with slight variations. Pickles and *chuttney*, *papar*, *salad*, etc., are eaten both at lunch and dinner. Many varieties of sweet dishes are prepared occasionally and seasonal fruits are also eaten. Some of the families in Delhi take *kuchha* food in the morning and *pucca* at night, the difference being that the latter has *prathas*

or *pooris* with vegetables instead of *chappatis* and rice The cooking mediums used are pure *ghee*, hydrogenated vegetable oils, mustard oil, etc During the summer months, cold drinks like *sherbat*, squashes, fresh lime, aerated waters, etc, are taken to quench the thirst Smoking and *pan* chewing are common in the city

Delhi has always been the gourmet's delight In the past, fish cutlets from the steps of the Jama Masjid, meatballs from Kucha Pandit, *nihari* from Ghantewala Ganje, *kheer* from Hauz Qazi, *Qalaqand* from Ghantewala, *jalebis* from Bhangi ka katra, *prathas* from Qutb Sahib[1] etc, were famous Even today Delhi retains its pre-eminent position in the gastronomic art. Dishes in the Mughlai cusine include *shahi korma, murg mussallam nargis koftas, rogan josh, biryani-pulao, shami* and *seekh kababs, shirmal*, etc A special mention may be made of *tandoori* chicken — a dish made world famous by Delhi — also *tandoori* fish *barra kabab*, fish *tikkai*, roast leg of mutton, *nan, roomali roti, tandoori roti*, etc Among sweets, *halwa sohan, pista ki lonj, kesarpak, rabri* and *balai, amriti* and *jalebis*, etc., of Delhi are famous Special *chat — dahi bhalla, gujiya, papri, gol gappe* etc,—as also Delhi's *dal bijі* may also be mentioned The *Prathe Wali Gali* in Chandni Chowk owes its very name to the special *prathe* selling shops located in the street

Besides, apart from its specialities, Delhi also serves most kinds of food not only from many parts of India, but many parts of the world Some of the South Indian dishes like *dosa, idli vada, sambhar, uppama, rasam*, etc, have gained popularity in Delhi in the recent years The Bengali sweets are another popular item, as also the Punjabi *channe-bhature* On the other hand, the leading restaurants and hotels of Delhi serve dishes from many international cuisines, such as French, Iranian, Chinese, etc There are quite a few Chinese restaurants in the Capital which proves the popularity of Chinese and far-eastern dishes The cakes and Swiss pastry of Delhi are also of top quality

Dress

The clothes worn by the people in rural Delhi are generally made of coarse mill-made cloth In the early decades of the present century, wearing clothes of hand-woven *khadi* was the common practice of the villages The main reason for this change is that mill-made cloth is cheaper, besides, very few

[1] The Statesman, March 12, 1972

women in the villages spin yarn at home now The dress worn by the villagers is still, by and large, the traditional one, *viz*, *dhoti*, *kurta* and turban, variously called *safa*, *pagri* or *mundasa* In recent years, the Gandhi cap has also become popular But the agriculturists still prefer the traditional turban as it provides greater protection against sun in summer and cold winds in winter During winter, they wrap themselves with a *chaddar* or *khes* made of thick course yarn, or a *razai* which is wound about like a cloak Sometimes some villagers, especially of lower caste, also wear *kamri*, a cotton stuffed jacket

In recent years, some persons in service occupations as also the students, have started wearing shirt, pyjama, bushirt, trousers, etc In winter, those who can afford also use woollen coats and trousers, mufflers, sweaters, etc Young boys for most part wear either shirt and *pyjama* or shirt and half-pants The very young, however, just wear a shirt and go naked underneath

The usual dress of the females is *kamiz*, *lehanga* or *ghagra*, *dopatta* or *orhna* A *ghagra* or skirt is made with 6-35 yards of coarse printed cloth, and the more the cloth used, the better it is considered Their clothes are gaudily coloured, with blue, red and yellow dominating They never wear anything pure white as that is considered inauspicious, wearing white *dopatta* or veil by a woman signifies that she is a widow In winter, women cover themselves with thick coarse *chaddars* or shawl, ome even wearing sweaters In summer, instead of the *kamiz*, some of them wear an *angi*, a short sleeved vest which covers the breast but leaves the abdomen bare Of late, *salwar kamiz* and *dopatta* have also found their way in rural Delhi, but this dress is popular generally among the younger generation Some young married women, especially belonging to Jat and Baniya families, also wear *sari*, petticoat, and blouse or jumper Young girls in the villages generally wear *kamiz* and *salwar* or underwear

Regarding footwear, the males mostly wear the locally made laceless pump shoes known as *juti*. *Chappals* and laced shoes are also used especially by those people who are in service occupations The children, especially students, sometimes wear cheap canvas shoes, though for most part they remain bare-footed The women folk wear *jutis* whose front is embroidered either with coloured thread or sometimes with *tilla*-silver thread, forming a veriety of pattern While slippers and *chappals* are gaining popularity with the women in Delhi's villages because of their lightness, sandals are generally worn by the newly married women

Passing on to the dress in the city of Delhi, the traditional Muslim dress used to be the *angarkha* and waist-coat, usually embroidered, wide *pyjama*, and a cloth cap, which could be plain or embroidered. The poor people, however, used to go about in *kurta* and *tahmad*, with a fez cap. The Hindus, on the other hand, continued with their *dhoti* and *kurta*. On ceremonial occasions, an *achkan* or *sherwani* with *pyjama* and a cloth cap or turban used to be worn. In winter, a *chaddar* or *shawl* or a cloak was worn across the shoulders over the *angarkha*. In the cold weather, the *angarkha* too used to be lined like a *razai* or quilt with cotton stuffing. The shawls and *doshalas* worn were also beautifully embroidered. But due to the impact of Western culture, the old sartorial modes started dis-appearing gradually. This trend was recorded thus by the old Gazetteer of Delhi, "The taste for cloth manufactured in Europe and for clothes of an English cut, especially waist-coats and coats, has spread considerably of recent years."[1]

The transformation of the Delhi male to Western dress is now almost complete. Most men in the city now use shirts, bushirts and trousers of cotton or terylene in summer and woollen suits and neckties or woollen jackets and trousers in winter. Clothes made of synthetic fibres like nylon, terrylene, terrycot, terrywool etc., are in great demand. Certain sections of population use this variety of cloth almost exclusively, the cotton having been driven out of competition. The advantage in this variety is that not only is it longer lasting and crease resistent, but easily washable at home also, needing little or no ironing. The younger folk imitate the Western fashions closely, for instance recently the drain-pipe trousers and shirts in pastel shades are "out", and bell-bottom trousers with shirts or bushirts in coloured prints with "long John" turbenized collars and large cuffs "in". Coloured sports-shirts, jeans, extra wide belts etc., are also very popular these days among Delhi's fashion conscious youth.

Despite this, many people in Delhi still wear *dhoti* and *kurta* or *pyjama* and *kurta*. Some men wear *churidar pyjamas* as well. In summer, a cotton or *khadi* Jawahar jacket may be worn over the *kurta*, while in winter, a woollen jacket along with a shawl, or an *achkan*/*sherwani* may be used. The Gandhi cap is very popular with this type of dress, sometimes a cloth cap or in winter a fur cap may also be worn. The Sikhs invariably

[1]*Gazetteer of the Delhi District*, 1912, p. 92

wear a turban irrespective of the Western or Indian dress they may be wearing In winter, full-sleeved sweaters mufflers and scarves, gloves, etc, are commonly used The woollen monkey caps are also worn by some older men, young children and men driving scooters and motor cycles Very few people now wear an overcoat The school going boys wear either shirt and *pyjama* or shirt and half pants

For the women of Delhi city, *sari*, petticoat and blouse was the most common dress The Muslim women used to wear *kurta, churidar pyjama* and *dopatta*, some young girls among them, however, preferred to wear *chemise* and *gharara*. The Punjabi women then as now, used to wear *salwar, kamiz* and *chunni* or *dopatta* The *sari* still retains its pre-eminent position in the women's attire The *saris* worn in Delhi are of different varieties both in designs and material used Thus, a *sari* may be white or coloured, plain or printed, embroidered or with attached border and so on, as also it may be of cotton, silk, synthetic material or mixed Though there are no hard and fast rules, generally, cotton and organdie *saris* are worn in summer, nylon, terrycot and terrylene saris in the rainy season, as they are crease resistent and the latter and silk *saris* in winter, as they keep warm The sophisticated among women wear matching *cholis* petticoats and other accessories with their *saris*

The *kamiz-salwar* and *kamiz-churidar* dress has gained great popularity, especially among the younger group, in recent years Some other popular dresses with the young girls are slacks, *lungis*, bell bottom trousers, stretch pants elephant pants, parallels *ghaggra-choli* etc It appears that mini dresses are out of fashion now, the midis and maxis being in vogue at present In winter the women protect themselves with sweaters and cardigans shawls and coats The young school-going girls mostly wear frocks, skirt and blouse, or *churidar pyjama* and *kurta*

As with dress, the foot-wear of Delhi's city folk is also of many varieties Men wear many types of *chappals*, sandals and shoes. In shoes there are many varieties, such as monk, moccasin. brogue, semi-brogue, *Jodhpuri*, etc Leather of several shades and varieties is also used, both suede and *sabar* being very popular Fashions regarding the toes of the shoes keep on changing - from Oxford toes to narrow toes and now again extra broad toes, so also the shape of heels, from the "Cuban" to square etc The boys generally wear rubber-soled shoes as they are longer

lasting The shoes worn by the women are of still larger varieties. Many types of *chappals*, sandals, ballets, shoes, *jutis*, etc., are used The women make it a point to wear matching footwear with their clothes. High, medium or small-heeled shoes, or the square and broad-heeled ones are bought by the women depending upon the latest fashion The canvas shoes known as "sneakers" are very popular among the young girls of Delhi these days

Ornaments

All the communities living in urban and rural Delhi alike wear ornaments They are made of gold and diamonds if the wearer is rich enough to afford it, for the rural part, however, the material is silver poor people have them of alloy, pewter bell-metal, etc Ornaments are considered to be the index of economic and social status of a person Besides, investment in ornaments is made because they are an insurance against the rainy day Ornaments are worn in the ear and nose, on the forehead and crown of the head the neck, chest, upper arm, the wrist, thumb and finger, and ankle and toe,— thus literally from head to toe Gold is, however, not worn on the foot The number of different kinds of ornaments being very large, it will be sufficient here to mention those that are most commonly worn

1 On the crown of the head an ornament called *chon* is worn,

2 On the forehead *borla*, called *munh ka saz* by the Muslims, is worn It is a round band worn on the forehead and comes down in frills on each side round to the ears,

3 For the nose, there is the *laung* and the *nath* The former is a nosepin, having one to three stones and is worn in the right wing of the nose The latter is a big nose-ring worn in the septum of the nose,

4 The different types of ear-rings worn are known as *bali*, *jhumke*, *bunde*, *kanphool*, etc.,

5 On the neck is the *hansli*, usually of horse-shoe shape, *kanthi*, a necklace made of golden rings with a *tikka* or golden disc hanging in the centre; *guluband*, a necklace tied close to the neck; *galsari* and *champakali*, silver lockets of different designs, etc ;

6. Among the ornaments of the arms, mention may be made of *choori* or bangles of gold, silver and alloy; *gajra* or wristlet, *kangan* or bracelet, *hathphool*, made of silver rings worn on fingers with a *jhallar* or frill spread over the palm, *bazoo*, a round silver rod worn above the elbow, etc ;

7 Rings may be worn on any finger and are called *mundri* or *anguthi*, the ringlet of silver being known as *challa* The thumb ring with mirror is called *arsi*,

8 The ornament at belt worn loosely round the waist is called *tagri*,

9 On the ankle is the *pazeb* a ring with pendent balls made of silver, which gives a tinkling sound while walking, and

10 On the toes there are the *chhalla* and *bichhua* The Muslims wear the first only on any toe But the *bichhua*, when used, occupies either of the second, third or fourth toe

It may further be pointed out that glass and plastic bangles sold by the pedlars are also worn by the women In their day to day life, women generally wear few ornaments, and that too the light ones But on occasions like marriages and other social functions, they deck themselves mostly with heavy ornaments Unmarried girls as a rule wear very few ornaments

In the past, men used to wear silver or gold buttons, with or without chains, on shirts finger rings of gold or alloy, and ear-rings Rarely, they used to wear *malas*— chains of silver or gold But now wearing of ornaments is no longer popular with the males, only occasionally an old man is found wearing some ornaments among the young, dandies apart, only a few are found with a ring on the index finger It may, however, be mentioned in this connection that wearing of tie-pins and cuff-links is very popular among those sporting Western dresses

Amusements

Before 1947, after a hard day's work, a game of chess or dice was a popular item of entertainment for an average resident of Delhi He needed no pin-drop silence for concentration, a corner in an over-crowded *chai khana* being enough Then there were *patangbazi*, *baterbazi*, *kabuterbazi* and many other *bazis*—all popular pastimes For some, wrestling was another item of

recreation; periodic *dangals* being held in old Delhi where the Capital's wrestlers tried their strength and skill. During the summer months, swimming was another popular pastime and *tairaki* competitions were held in the Yamuna. Visits to the dancing and singing girls in Chawri Bazar and G. B Road was another popular pastime Mention should be made of the *Mushairas*, *Qawwali* singing, etc, also which were held periodically in the city. Women had been provided with a *purdah bagh*, an all female preserve, near the Red Fort, where they gathered or picnic-cum-gossip sessions

Some of the old animal sports of Delhi, such as patridge fighting, cock fighting, pigeon flying, etc, still survive, though they are confined practically to certain classes of people only Kite flying is also now mainly confined to the children in the city The sport of wrestling has waned in popularity, its place having been taken by the free-style wrestling For swimming also, instead of the Yamuna, the well-to-do patronize the various swimming pools The cabaret has forced the dancing girls out of limelight *Mushairas* and *kavi sammelans* are no doubt held, but they too have ceased to be very popular in the absence of really appreciative audience Thus, in recent times, the pastimes of the people have undergone significant changes

Before 1947, the cinema was no entertainment for most people They could not understand the logic of spending money to see shadows. Today people in Delhi buy cinema tickets in the black market The cinema-goer has been readily willing to spend more on his cinema ticket, the prices in Delhi being the highest in India While the volume of cinema-going increased four-fold between 1947 and 1966, the index for patrons of seats priced Rs 2 50 and above increased from 100 in 1947 to as much as 666 in January 1966, that for seats between Rs 1 25 and Rs 2 50 moving up to 688 in the same period, but the index for seats priced Rs 1 25 and below remained fairly constant around 200[1] The popularity of the cinema can further be gauged by the rapid increase in the number of cinema houses as also the number of shows held during a day In 1957, excluding Shahdara and the Cantonment areas, Delhi had about 20 cinema houses[2] Their number has now more than doubled, the actual figure being around 50, and the new cinema houses are so spread as to cater for all the new colonies of the city

[1] Mitra—*op cit*, p. 25

[2] Bopegamage—*op cit* pp 157–58

Most of them now are either air-conditioned or air-cooled Regarding the number of shows, two new ones — morning and noon — have been added to the earlier matinee, evening and late night shows Thus, the cinemas now work almost non-stop from 9 in the morning to 12 at night

The frequency of cinema going depends both on age and income During a sample survey conducted a few years back, it was found that only 2 1 per cent of the sample visited the cinema more often than four times a month, 7 7 per cent four times, 5 6 per cent thrice, 36 2 per cent twice and the remaining 48 4 per cent only once a month Among the different age groups, the order of importance placed adolescents in the first; the adults, at a considerable distance, in the second, children again at a considerable distance, at the third, and the old in the last position[1] Reference may also be made to television watching and radio listening in this connection There were over 50,000 television sets operating in Delhi in June, 1972,[2] owning a set has already become a status symbol Two pictures are shown on the T V every week, in addition to a half hour programme of song and dance known as *Chitrahar* In addition, the coverage of important news, social events, interviews with prominent personalities in different fields, etc, are very popular with the viewers Important sports events and matches are also televized which has resulted in poor attendance and fall in the gate-money at the venue The number of radio-sets runs into nearly five lakhs in the Capital The commercialized programme of *Vividh Bharti* is especially popular among the people Besides, the running commentaries on the important functions, sports meets, test matches, etc, are listened to eagerly by a very large section of the people

Visits to cafes and restaurants coffee houses and tea houses, is another popular form of recreation in Delhi Many of the restaurants, especially in the Connaught place area, serve as meeting places where groups of people gather and chat over their cups of tea or coffee This picture of affluence and status seeking is reflected in the growth of hotels and eating places in Delhi The growth in the number of restaurants cafes, etc., from a mere 1,700 places employing about 5,000 persons in 1958 to as many as 3,350 places employing over 12 000 persons in 1967 is a "testimony to Delhi's changing social habits and gastronomic

[1] Rao & Desai—*op cit* p 338

[2] Delhi Quarterly Digest of the Bureau of Economics & Statistics, Sept 1972

venturesomeness."[1] Many of the better class restaurants and hotels provide facilities for ball-room dancing also But these facilities are mostly utilized by people belonging to the upper income group only A brief reference to the several discotheques with their 'pop groups' may also be made here

Delhi is now perhaps the biggest and busiest centre of organized cultural activity in India It possesses a large number of public and private exhibition galleries, auditoria, stages, projection facilities, concert halls, covered and open air theatres, etc A large number of concerts, art exhibitions, plays and dance recitals are held by groups coming not only from all parts of the country but abroad also The operas, plays, dance recitals of *Bharat Natyam*, *Kathak*, *Kathakali*, *Odissi*, *Manipuri*, etc., as also the music concerts — light and classical Indian music both vocal and instrumental, draw packed houses But these forms of amusements are confined to the middle and upper middle groups only as the rates of admission are rather on the high side.

Picnicking is yet another popular amusement, especially during the winter and rainy seasons The sight of thousands of low and middle income families picnicking with lunch baskets, transistors and other holiday accoutrements in public parks and monuments within and outside Delhi at weekends and holidays is a fascinating sight[2] Some of the other amusements are gossiping, chess and card playing, visiting, reading, walking, etc A brief reference to fishing and yachting may also be made here The latter takes place in Okhla, and for fishing people go to Okhla as well as rivers Yamuna and Hindon

Passing on to the amusements in rural Delhi, we find that the villagers have very little of organizerd recreation for their leisure time For the most part, they spend their leisure in idle gossip, smoking *hookah*, playing cards and *chopar*, etc The most important source for recreation are festivals and social and religious occasions, which provide a good opportunity for joy and gaiety Sometimes a few of the villagers who are in service in Delhi, or those who go to the city for shopping, litigation, etc., also visit a movie The other recreational activities are *swangs*, *bhajans*, *kirtans* and legendary songs of local *ragis* — musicians *Swang* is a sort of a stage play through the media of dances and songs, the mythological stories and folktales generally providing

[1] Mitra—*op cit* p 25.

Ibid. p. 26

the themes But the entertainment and fun which these shows provide is often rustic and sometimes even vulgar[1] During *Dussehra* days, sometimes parties from outside also visit the villages to stage *Ramlila*, which continues for about ten days

Some of the villagers gather in the village *chaupals* to listen to the radio broadcasts The *dehati bhaiyon ka* programme relayed from Delhi as also the programme called *goshti*, which deals mainly with agricultural subjects, are very popular The publicity van of the Delhi Administration also visits the various villages once in three months and shows documentary films The people, especially children, throng with joy and witness the show with great enthusiasm"

Communal Life

Pilgrim Centres

On certain days in the year, people throng to the Yamuna river bank for a holy dip On the tenth day of the month of *Jaith* (May-June) occurs the festival of *Jaith Ka Dussehra* when people take bath in the river It is generally believed in rural Delhi that the Yamuna washes away the sins committed in agricultural work, such as, beating of oxen, killing of mice and other insects, etc Next the festival of *Ganga Yamuna Nahan*, which literally means bathing in the Ganga or Yamuna, falls on the first full moon day after *Diwali*. On this day, people go either to Jamuna or, if possible, to Ganga at Gurmukteswar The whole month of *Kartik* (November — December) is considered auspicious for taking baths The devout go to the Yamuna for bathing every day Besides if the *amavas* the monthly new moon day, falls on a monday, it is considered very auspicious and people go to take bath in Yamuna The orthodox Hindus go for a bath in the Yamuna on the occasion of an eclipse, lunar or solar, to purify themselves

Public Games

Games and sports claim considerable importance as a form of group or social activity But in Delhi, as elsewhere in the country, the outdoor games have traditionally remained confined to the children and the young, though in recent years the higher age groups among the well-to-do have also started participating A sample survey conducted in Delhi a few years back revealed that even among children the proportion constituted by players

[1] *Census of India*, 1961 vol XIX, pt VI, No 10, p 66
[2] *Census of India*, 1961 Vol XIX, pt VI, No 12, p 78

was quite small; only 21 boys and 7 girls in every hundred in the sample claimed to be players of games. It was further revealed that with age participation in games became less frequent; even from children to adolescents the proportion of players got considerably reduced both for boys and girls.[1] About the type of games, it was found that some played both outdoor and indoor games; the total players of outdoor games constituted 74 per cent of the above noted group of players, and those playing indoor games accounted for 48 per cent only The relative imoprtance of individual games was revealed as follows [2]

	Games	Members	% of Total
Outdoor	Football . . .	899	20·5
	Hockey . .	591	13·5
	Cricket . .	635	14·5
	Tennis .	96	2 2
	Volleyball .	422	9 6
	Indian Games .	1,740	39·7
	TOTAL	4,383	100 0
Indoor	Cards .	1,275	30 4
	Carrom .	785	18 9
	Chess .	293	7 0
	Table Tennis	308	7·4
	Badminton .	715	17 2
	Others	780	19 1
	TOTAL .	4,156	100 0

Indian outdoor games include principally *kho-kho*, *kabbadi* and *guli-danda*. They involve hardly any cost as compared to the other games noted in the Table above Besides, they are played

[1] Rao & Desai—*op.cit*. p 334

[2] *Ibid*, p. 335.

in lanes, roads and even in the back-yards This probably accounts for the lead that Indian outdoor games enjoy over the others Tennis, which is the costliest game, comes at the bottom Football appears to be comparatively more popular, followed by cricket and hockey Cards among the indoor games head the list, carrom follows at a distance followed closely by badminton Among the other games are included a great variety of games provided at home, such as, ludo, snakes and ladder, Chinese chequers, etc

Most of the outdoor games like cricket hockey, and football are plyed in the winter season only There are clubs for different games and their members play generally on Saturdays and Sundays The schools and colleges have their teams for different games and inter-school, inter-college and inter-university tournaments are held Besides, sports watching is one of the popular recreation of the people of Delhi Thousands of people gather to see the D C M football and Durand football matches, the Ranji Trophy and test matches in cricket, the inter-State hocky tournaments, badminton, volley ball and tennis matches In fact, during the season, sports and sports news become the talk of the day, people sitting glued to their radio sets and transistors A reference to horse-racing has already been made in the chapter

Recreation Clubs and Associations[1]

Delhi has a large number of semi-public recreational agencies, such as, sports clubs, social clubs, dramatic clubs, etc They are supported by membership fees and donations and provide many types of recreational facilities to meet all tastes and interests Besides, the members have a direct control over the facilities and the types of recreation provided Clubs in Delhi may be grouped in two categories,— the cosmopolitan clubs and the community clubs While the former allow membership to any one irrespective of caste, race or creed, membership in the latter is restricted to those belonging to a particular ethnic group

Cosmopolitan Clubs

Some of the well known cosmopolitan clubs in New Delhi are the Chelmsford Club the Delhi Gymkhana Club, the National Sports Club of India, the Delhi Golf Club, Talkatora Club, the

[1] This section is based largely on Bopegamage—*op cit* pp. 150–55.

Defence Services Club, the Delhi and District Cricket Association Club, etc The number of such clubs in Delhi city is, however, smaller; some of the prominent ones being the Roshanara Club, the National Club, the Young Men's Tennis Club, etc The Lions Club and the Rotary Club, the Delhi Yacht Club, the Delhi Race Club, etc, may also be mentioned. Membership to the Defence Services Club is restricted to the persons serving in the country's defence forces Similarly, the membership of the Talkatora Club is also restricted to the Central and State Government employees. The activities of these clubs cover social, cultural and recreational spheres The outdoor games played include tennis, squash, badminton and swimming, the indoor games being billiards, table tennis, cards, etc The Roshanara Club has beautiful grounds for cricket, hockey and football. All the clubs have separate bars, lounges, reading rooms, etc. Occasionally, they arrange ball-room dances, floor shows, *mushairas*. *Qawallis*, cultural programmes, etc The other cosmopolitan clubs like the Delhi Golf Club, Delhi Race Club and the Delhi Yacht Club provide mainly one kind of activity as indicated by their names.

Besides these, there are several dramatic clubs and theatre groups in Delhi as well The Indian National Theatre, the Little Theatre Group, the Yatrik etc, may be mentioned in this connection They arrange performances based on modern themes and also classical dramas The British High Commission's A D C Group may be specially mentioned in this connection as they stage one or two plays every year

Two other well known cosmopolitan semi-public organisations which offer facilities for recreation are the Y M C A, and the Y W C A They are units of a world wide organisation Any person can become a member on payment of a small fee Their programmes of recreational activities include indoor and outdoor games, dramatic performances, musical concerts, etc For women, they conduct cooking and dress-making classes also Both the Y M C A, and Y W C A provide accommodation at moderate charges

Community Clubs

Most of the community clubs are found in New Delhi, as many of the migrants from other parts of India are settled there There are a few such clubs in the city also, but they are not so active as those in New Delhi Some of the community clubs found in Delhi are the Maharashtra Club, the Kerala Club, the

South Indian Club, the Bengali Club, the Anglo-Indian Club, etc. The main object of these clubs is to promote social intercourse among their members and to undertake activities necessary for promotion of their culture as also the interests of the community In addition, they provide facilities for different types of indoor and outdoor games, run reading rooms and libraries, and arrange cultural programmes

Economic And Professional Groups And Classes In Relation To Social Life

From a socio-economic point of view, a noteworthy feature in Delhi is the change that is taking place in the occupational structure of both rural and urban areas In the traditional Hindu society, caste and occupation were more or less synonymous But in the last hundred years or so the Jats as original settlers of the land, had formed themselves into a group of wealthy zamindars, enjoying higher social status and power in the villages Even the Brahmins who occupied a higher position in the caste hierarchy, had to economically depend upon the jats Thus, in addition to the caste status enjoyed by a person, the extent of landed property owned by him also determined his prestige and standing in society

In the last decade or so, however, due to various economic and social changes like spread of education, increasing contacts with urban areas, etc, there have been some significant changes from traditional to non-traditional occupations The near extinction of the class of non-cultivating owners of land can primarily be attributed to the enactment and implementation of the Delhi Land Reforms Ac of 1954, which prohibits the leasing out of land to others for cultivation, except under certain conditions Under the Act, all those who were cultivating the land of others since 1952 or before were declared the rightful owners or *bhumidars* of the same Thus, many tillers of land have come to own land previously held by the non-cultivating zamindars; the latter have in the process started losing their power and influence

This process has further been hastened by people from different castes taking to non-traditional occupations Earlier, most of the Scheduled Castes were solely dependent upon the agriculturists for their livelihood They were either working on the *Jajman* basis or as landless labourers in factories, offices, etc This has brought them more stability for, as agricultural labourers earlier, they had to simply depend upon the landowners in the

villages, who at best were able to provide them with only seasonal employment, and the remunerations — whether in cash or kind — were less than what they receive now from their present jobs Not only have they become better off than before by their own efforts, but they also receive certain weightages and privileges from the State, by which they have become more conscious of their rights. Many of them now are prepared to meet the higher castes only on equal terms The latter consider this as an effrontary on the part of the Scheduled Castes, and as such relations between the two have become considerably tense But in spite of all these changes, there is no gainsaying the fact that caste is still a dominant factor and to a great extent prescribes and regulates most of the social relations in the rural areas of Delhi.

In urban Delhi also new economic and professional classes have come to the fore Affluent business magnates, industrial tycoons, as also engineers, members of the administrative services and learned professions enjoy more status and prestige than the traditional landed *rais* The sophisticated classes that have thus emerged due to the influence of Western education and modern technology, are discarding the age old caste and other traditional restrictions and are trying to live in two cultural worlds, the East and the West

APPENDIX I

The following 36 castes were recognised as Scheduled Castes for the Union Territory of Delhi by the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes (Modification) Order of 1956, issued by the President of India in pursuance of the provisions of Article 341 of the Constitution of India [1]

1 *Adi-Dharmi*
2 *Agria*
3 *Aheria*
4 *Balai*
5. *Banjara*
6. *Bawaria*
7 *Bazigar*
8. *Bhangi*
9 *Bhil*

[1] *Census of India*, 1961. Vol XIX, Part V-A p. 3

10 *Chamar, Chanwar Chamar, Jatya or Jatav Chamar, Mochi, Ramdasia, Ravidasia, Raidasi Rehgarh* or *Raigar*
11 *Chuhra* (Sweeper)
12 *Chuhra* (Balmiki)
13 *Dhanak* or *Dhanuk*
14 *Dhobi*
15 *Dom*
16 *Gharrami*
17 *Julaha* (Weaver)
18 *Kabirpanthi*
19 *Kachhanda*
20 *Kanjar* or *Giarah*
21 *Khatik*
22 *Koli*
23 *Lalbegi*
24 *Madari*
25 *Mallah*
26 *Mazhabi*
27 *Meghwal*
28 *Naribut*
29 *Nat* (Rana)
30 *Pasi*
31 *Perna*
32 *Sansi* or *Bhedkut*
33 *Sapera*
34 *Sikligar*
35 *Singiwala* or *Kalbelia* and
36 *Sirkiband*

APPENDIX II

Moharram in Delhi

Moharram is the festival of mourning among the Muslims in commemoration of the death of Imam Husain, the grandson of Prophet Muhammad, and his associates in the desert of Karbala, about thirteen hundred years ago. A number of rituals and social complexes have grown round it. In Delhi public *majlises* — congregations—are held at Dargah Panja Sharif in Kashmire Gate, and at the Immamia Hall on Punchkuin Road. While both of these

are *shia* institutions, the *sunnis* hold public *majises* at Imambara Nizami in Nizamudin and at Jama Masjid[1]. The *majlises* are held for 12 days

The *majlis* is primarily a congregation where the incidents of Karbala are recalled with expression of grief and sorrow. In Delhi, the stages in a *majlis* are *sozkhani, merciakhani, religious* discourse, *matam* with *noha ziarat* and *tabarruk*.[2] Singing of short poems in Urdu is called *soz*. They are composed in praise of Prophet Muhammad and his descendents. Singing of *soz* is generally followed by *salam* or salutation, the former consisting of 4-6 verses and the latter of 5-10 verses *Sozkhani* is generally done by 2-5 persons, one person leads the song and the others help him to maintain the *swara* or note It generally lasts from 15-30 minutes, depending upon the number of poems to be sung, the normal practice being that one *soz* as well as one *salam* are sung This is followed by *merciakhani* or singing of elegies, in the context of *moharrani*, the *mercia* narrates the martyrdom of Imam Hussain as well as of the events relating to the tragedy at Karbala The *mercia* is recited in a rhythm, and like *sozkhani* no musical instrument is used in *merciakhani* either The religious discourse next follows It consists of two parts — one consisting of discussion on different theological issues of Islam, and the other recalling the events of Karbala The discourse is given by a speaker, called *Zakir*, and like professional *soz* and *mercia* singers, he is also paid for his services During the discourse he frequently bids the mourners to send their *salwats* or invocations to God for peace to the soul of the Prophet and his descendants By this, the mourners earn religious merit called *sawab* After the discourse, the mourners stand up for observing *matam*, which lasts for about 20 minutes—by beating their breasts to the accompaniment of *nohas* or *dirges* The latter are lamentation composed in the form of poems having 4-8 couplets These are sung in the *majlis* as also in the *tazia* processions The leader recites a line of the *noha* which is repeated by the mourners beating their breasts at the same time This is followed by *ziarat*, that is pilgrimage from a distance While incanting *ziarat*, the mourners keep standing facing west and point out, with index finger, the direction of Mecca *Tabarruk* — food or drink — is next distributed, after which the *majlis* disperses

Besides *majlises*, some of the other religious activities observed by the Muslim are keeping of *tazia*, reciting *shahdatnama* — an account of martyrdom, reciting *fateha*, distributing food, *sherbat*, etc The *tazia* processions are taken out in Delhi on the 10th of *Moharram* from near Jama Masjid, Qutb Road and Hazrat Nizam-

[1] *Census of India*, 1961 Monograph Series, Monograph No. 3 *Moharram in two cities, Lucknow & Delhi*

[2] *Ibid*, p 4.

mudin The *tazias* are buried at Karbala, symbolic of the one in Iraq, in South Delhi near the Safdarjung airport[1]

An important feature of *Moharram* in Delhi is the participation of the Hindus in the festival, though as compared to Lucknow, this participation is much more limited[2] A well-to-do cloth merchant of the Pahari Dhiraj area of Delhi has been distributing sweets, rice and cakes to the Muslim residents of the area on this occasion He has been doing it for the last few years to foster Hindu-Muslim unity in the area Another Hindu, a resident of Jangpura in New Delhi, is a reputed speaker and gives discourses in the various *majlises*[3] The festival has thus a human appeal which transcends the bounds of religion, caste and creed

The festival seems, however, to have lost much of its old elan in Delhi This is due to the general rise in cost of living, Westernization and modernization, and migration of a sizeable Muslim population from Delhi after partition of the country The level of performances as well has gone down considerably

1 *The Statesman*, Feb 27, 1972 *The Hindustan Times*, Feb. 27, 1972
2 *Census of India*, 1961 *op cit* p 13
3 *Ibid* pp 14, 55 & 76

CHAPTER IV

AGRICULTURE AND IRRIGATION

Delhi is located in the centre of most fertile and agriculturally important areas which comprise Punjab, Haryana, the Western portion of Uttar Pradesh and parts of Rajasthan The districts in Uttar Pradesh lying between Yamuna and Ganges (Saharanpur, Muzzafarnagar, Meerut, Bulandshahar, Aligarh, Etah and Mainpuri) as well as those immediately east of the Ganges (Bijnor, Moradabad, Budaun, and Shahjahanpur) contain some of the richest and the most productive agricultural lands of India. Similarly, the districts of Punjab and Haryana especially in north and north west of Delhi are agriculturally very rich. Punjab is not only the granary of India but has also attained an additional importance for its cattle wealth In fact, practically, whole of the wheat required by the Government for distribution in other parts of the country comes from Punjab, Haryana and Western Uttar Pradesh

Delhi has undergone a number of changes in its size Although it was only a district in the Punjab State till 1912, it had a total geographical area of 326 6 thousand hectares as against 148 thousand hectares now Its earlier two tahsils viz Sonipat, and Ballabhgarh now form part of Haryana State Rural areas of the Union Territory of Delhi now consist of five blocks—Mehrauli, Shahdara, Alipur, Kanjhawala and Najafgarh

For revenue purposes the Territory is divided into six divisions - Kohi, Khandrat, Shahdara, Dhadur, Bangar and Dabar Chak Including the city proper the territory covers an area of 148 thousand hectares, of which as much as 25 per cent is urbanised In rural Delhi, there are about 24 6 thousand agricultural families inhabited in 258 villages Another 40 villages are within the urban areas During 1969-70 over 100 thousand hectares of land was under cultivation, of which over fifty per cent was irrigated

Being primarily an urban area, Delhi has depended for its food requirements on the adjoining States of Punjab, Haryana and Uttar Pradesh Since September, 1963, however, under the Intensive Agricultural District Programme and the availability of the technical guidance of experts from the Indian Agricultural Research Institute, Pusa, it has made much progress in the field of agriculture An additional production potential of 21 thousand

15—1 Delhi Adm./73

tonnes of foodgrains was created against the target of 20 thousand tonnes during the Third Plan period and actual production increased from 61 thousand tonnes in 1964-65 to 127 thousand tonnes in 1970-71 Yields of wheat, the principal crop of the Territory, increased from 1015 Kgs per hectare in 1960-61 to 1933 Kgs in 1970-71 Area under vegetables increased from 4 thousand hectares in 1964-65 to over 17 thousand hectares in 1970-71 In spite of all this, total production is hardly enough to meet the food requirements of the territory for about 2 months Bulk of the food, milk, eggs, vegetables and fish requirements as well as practically the whole of fruits have thus to be imported

The future agricultural development of Delhi has to lay more emphasis on dairying, poultry, piggery and fisheries because of the perishable nature of these commodities on the one hand and higher per capita demand for them on the other hand The role of agriculture, even then is quite insignificant According to the Estimates of State Income of Delhi, published by the Bureau of Economics & Statistics, Delhi Administration, (July 1973) the share of agriculture and allied industries in the total income of Delhi was about 6 per cent (Table 1) as against nearly 50 per cent for the country as a whole

TABLE 1

Net income of Delhi from agriculture sector

Year	Net Income (Lakh Rs)	Share of agriculture to the total income (Percent)
1960-61	1,223	6 17
1961-62	1,309	5 92
1962-63	1,251	5 36
1963-64	1,373	5 36
1964-65	1,511	5 08
1965-66	1,772	5 47
1966-67	2,448	5 74
1967-68	2,813	6 88
1968-69	2,844	5 16
1969-70	2,952	5.71
1970-71	3,347	5.91
1971-72	3,643	5.85

Following the pattern of income distribution, out of a total working population of 12.24 lakhs, according to 1971 census, the work force was predominently non-agricultural, 11.75 lakhs workers being engaged in the industrial categories (other than cultivation and agricultural labour).

Land Reclamation and Land Utilisation

The river Yamuna flows through the Delhi Metropolitan Area north to south east The normal flow channel is not very wide but to keep the city safe from flooding during the monsoon within the urban areas, both the banks of the river have been controlled by constructing regular *bunds* and embankments keeping enough space between them for holding the flood waters

The river Hindon flows through the eastern portion of the Metropolitan area and joins the Yamuna, south of Surajpur village This river has been dammed just south of the Delhi-Ghaziabad railway line and a diversion canal feeds the Yamuna above the Okhla weir The Agra canal takes off from this point. The Hindon river is very winding, has no defined banks and covers large areas The land on both sides is subject to flooding during the monsoons These two rivers, the Yamuna and the Hindon, cover about 12 thousand hectares of this Metropolitan area The Hindon cut, the Agra Canal and the Western Yamuna Canal take up 240 additional hectares The total land under the rivers and canals, therefore is over 12 thousand hectares or 5 8 per cent of the total Metropolitan area.

More than two-thirds of the total land is used for agricultural purposes The northern parts of the area, north of Rohtak Road, Grand Trunk Road and Ghaziabad Road are irrigated by the two distributaries of the eastern Yamuna and western Yamuna canals and are thus very fertile Productivity in these areas is much higher than in the west and south-west around Nangloi and Najafgarh areas, or in the south around Mehrauli and Chattarpur villages

According to the land utilization pattern, the geographical area of the Union Territory of Delhi has remained constant at around 148 thousand hectares over the last 20 years or so Village records are available for the whole of this area. Net sown area has, however, declined from 90.9 thousand hectares during 1950-51 to 80 thousand hectares during 1970-71 (Appendix I) This

is quite understandable for the Capital of the Country where urban population is expanding The Master Plan for Delhi stipulates that by 1981 urbanised area in the Territory will cover about 40 per cent of the total geographical area as against 22 per cent during 1961

Another very peculiar feature of the land utilization pattern is that forests costitute only 1 per cent of the total geographical area Area under forest which had actually increased from 1 4 thousand hectares during 1965-66 to three thousand hectares during 1968-69, has again declined to 1 1 thousand hectares in 1970-71

A characteristic feature of land tenure in the rural areas is the reservation of wood-producing land in the *shamlat deh* (common land) as an enclosure from where nc fuel or wood is to be cut This is generally connected with religion in the shape of a *fakir s* hut, or grave o a religious shrine

While one would have expected that area under fallow land should have come down due to the pressure on and, total fallow land in the Union Territory according to the available data, has increased from 4 6 thousand hectares during 1950-51 to 15 thousand hectares during 1970-71

Size Of Holdings

Available data shows that the number of cultivators in the smallest size of holding up to 0 4 hectares increased from 9 2 per cent during 1964-65 to 14 7 per cent during 1968-69, and correspondingly in the highest size of holding (above 8 hectares) per centage share of the cultivators fell from 16 9 to 10 1 during the same period (Appendix II)

This also reveals that the percentage of cultivators with owned land is gradually increasing while those of cultivators with owned and leased-in land declined from 19 to 12 per cent during 1964-65 and 1968-69 The number of cultivators with only leased-in land however, stood at the constant level of 2 per cent (Table 2)

TABLE 2

Percentage of cultivators according to ownership

Year	Owned Land	Owned and leased land	Leased land
1964-65	79	19	2
1965-66	81	17	2
1966-67	80	18	2
1967-68	85	14	1
1968-69	86	12	2

As would be evident from Table 3, there had been an increase in the number of cultivators in very small, small, medium and large holdings in 1968-69 as compared to 1964-65 but in the case of very large holdings, it considerably decreased from 46 13 to 32 49 per cent during the above period

TABLE 3

Percentage area held by cultivators of different holding sizes

Holding size	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69
1 Very small (0—2 5 acres) .	1 14	1 71	2 61	2 14	2 02
2 Small (2 5—5 0 acres) . .	3 48	5 31	5 96	5 40	5 40
3 Medium (5 0—9 9 acres) .	17 60	21 90	24 66	20 56	20 20
4 Large (9 9—19 8 acres)	31 62	31 51	36 82	36 34	39 88
5 Very large (19 8 acres and above) . . .	46 13	39 57	29 95	35 56	32 49

There is a marked change in the area under different crops according to the size of holdings The share of wheat in the area on very small size of holdings increased from 22 per cent during 1964-65 to 58 per cent during 1968-69 The corresponding figures for the same period for small holdings were 23 to 52 and medium ones, from 37 to 64 against the pooled overall average of 25 to 50 per cent. The position was reversed in the case of *bajra* and other foodgrains where percentage area under the very small size of

holding declined from 15 to 2 per cent during the same period and a small decline is indicated in all other sizes as well (Appendix III)

Irrigation

The influence of the Yamuna extends upto 192 kilometres south to Agra and 160 kilometres west to Hissar as well as about 80 kilometres east beyond Meerut The origin of this influence reaches far north into the Himalayas and is first subject to control at the Tajewala diversion weir, 200 kilometres north of Delhi. This covers a total area of approximately 77 thousand square kilometres

The geographic complexity of water control is being extended by modern methods and the productivity and complexity of the systems themselves is being increased Functions of flood control and control of soil erosion on a regional basis and hydro-electric generation are being added to the earlier functions of irrigation and elementary urban water supply. The increased demands are related to the growth and modernization of Delhi as well as the towns and rural areas surrounding it in the upper Yamuna basin With increasing population and rising standards of living, these towns require more water for domestic and industrial uses At the same time they generate more sewage effluent treatment, the disposition of which must be controlled The increasing pressure for land and the increasing value and complexity of structures installed on the land means that river-bank cities like Delhi require more and more protection from floods. In short the increase of population and activity in the central Yamuna watershed is placing increasingly exigent demands upon the proper management of the water resources of the valley

Since Delhi constitutes a very small area and is surrounded by three States, there is need for joint action in the case of the management of water resources Here, the complexity of modern river basin development, including features of flood control navigation, hydro electric generation, irrigation, and the provision of potable water is combined with the complexity of the management of inter-related river systems and with the related and overlapping needs of the agricultural and urban areas

In the matter of agro-climatic conditions, rains are considered a very lean source of supply as these are both scanty and erratic in occurrance It is not only the total rain-fall in the year which is very much undependable and fluctuating, the total number of rainy days in the year also show much variation (Table 4).

TABLE 4

Rainfall in Delhi

(Rainfall in Millimetres)

Months	1967		1968		1969		1970		1971		1972	
	No of rainy days	Total rainfall	No of rainy days	Total rainfall	No of rainy days	Total rainfall	No of rainy days	Total rainfall	No. of rainy days	Total rainfall	No. of rainy days	Total rain-fall
January .			2	12.1		0.9	3	51.2	1	14.2	1	10.1
February .		2.1	2	9.3	1	8.6	4	52.5	1	11.4	2	20.7
March . .	3	50.1	2	8.6	2	17.4	2	60.0		0.8		1.0
April . .		0.6		0.8		1.0			1	13.4	2	10.8
May . .			1	6.7	3	31.5	1	53.6	3	55.7		0.1
June . .	3	25.3	2	24.2	5	60.6	6	121.7	4	102.4	2	33.4
July . .	11	218.4	9	302.0	11	226.9	5	49.7	6	190.9	10	299.9
August .	17	536.9	7	216.0	6	138.3	11	199.5	13	377.9	13	351.8
September	8	132.6		0.5	6	196.7	9	151.0	6	157.9	3	36.0
October .	2	24.9		0.6			1	5.4	1	8.9	1	32.6
November .		8.8									2	100.1
December .	2	69.5								0.1		..
TOTAL .	46	1,069.2	25	610.8	34	681.9	42	717.6	36	933.6	36	896.5

Source · *Delhi Statistical Handbook* 1970 *and* 1973 p. 31 *and* p. 48.

Normally there are two major sources of irrigation: irrigation from (i) canals and (ii) underground water through wells and tubewells etc. A third dimension is also added in an area like Delhi where a good deal of effluent water is available.

The effluent produced with the treatment of sewage in Delhi having a direct relationship with the input of consumptive water supply is quite a big potential source of water. Presently, the quantum of effluent on the three treatment plants—Coronation Pillar, Keshopur and Okhla is 98 M G D, which is capable of irrigating an area of about 2,000 hectares. This water is precious as a fertilizer having rich manurial value.

According to the Delhi Statistical Handbook of 1972 published by the Bureau of Economics & Statistics, the total irrigated area in the Union Territory was only 19.2 thousand hectares on the eve of partition and reached an all time record of 41.2 thousand hectares during 1951-52, but remained much below this figure in the subsequent 15 years till 1966-67 when it touched 43 thousand hectares. With the introduction of high yielding varieties, irrigation also got a big boost and gross irrigated area increased to about 57 thousand hectares in 1969-70. All this increase has taken place mostly in minor irrigation viz., wells and tubewells etc. Area irrigated from wells has increased just from 18 thousand hectares in 1965-66 to 34.7 thousand hectares in 1970-71 and that under tubewells from 1.6 thousand hectares in 1965-66 to 29.5 thousand hectares in 1970-71 thereby registering an over all increase of 36 per cent in comparison to 1965-66. Area irrigated by canals have actually declined from 14.2 thousand hectares in 1965-66 to 12.6 hectares in 1970-71, and that under tanks from 1.5 thousand hectares in 1965-66 to 497 hectares in 1970-71. The share of canal and tank irrigation in the total irrigation is, thus, declining while that of minor irrigation, particularly, wells and tubewells is increasing (Table 5).

TABLE 5

Sources of irrigation and irrigated area in Delhi

(In hectares)

Source of Irrigation	1965-66	1968-69	1969-70	1970-71
1. Canals . .	14,203 (42.23)	11,694 (27.47)	13,667 (29.29)	12,540 (26.27)
2. Tanks	1,473 (4.38)	1,169 (2.75)	530 (1.14)	497 (1.04)

(In hectares)

Source of Irrigation	1965-66	1968-69	1969-70	1970-71
3. Wells	17,954 (53 39)	29,701 (69 78)	32,458 (69 57)	34,696 (72 69)
(a) Tubewells . . .	1,613 (4 80)	10,850 (25 49)	16,721 (35 84)	19,463 (40 78)
(b) Other Wells . . .	16,341 (48 59)	18,851 (44 29)	15,737 (33 73)	15,233 (31 91)
4. Net area irrigated (1+2+3) .	33,630 (100)	42,564 (100)	46,655 (100)	47,733 (100)
5 Area irrigated under more than one crop	4,920	11,504	10,778	8,492
6 Gross area irrigated (4+5)	38,550	54,068	57,433	56,225

Source *Statistical Handbook, Delhi Administration*, 1973 p 55

A close look at the irrigation data would show that there is a steady increase in the gross irrigated area from the year 1965-66

Major Irrigation

The only source of major irrigation in the state is the river Yamuna which supplies water to Delhi along with Haryana and Uttar Pradesh Delhi is fed by the western and eastern Yamuna canal systems There are in the Union Territory canals with a total length of 56 kilometres.

Although there has been a significant development in the extension of canal irrigation with an increase of cultivable commandable area from 26.4 thousand hectares in 1922 to 37 4 thousand hectares in 1968 (Appendix IV) the importance of canal irrigation is declining. Total irrigation by canals was only 13.7 thousand hectares during 1969-70.

Presently the canal water is available in dry weather some time after an interval of three to four weeks and, therefore, regular supply with a view to narrowing down the interval of canal closure has to be aimed at. According to the riparian rights on the waters of river Yamuna in the matter of irrigation use, the control and management vests with the adjoining Haryana State. There is no likelihood that Haryana would concede to any proposal of extension of irrigation to Delhi from the waters utilized by them. There is however, a prospect of utilization of the surplus water of river Yamuna during the monsoon periods but this water unless it is stored will not be a source of assured supply. Unfortunately, there is no site within Delhi Territory where such water could be stored for the purpose of extension of irrigation.

A discharge of about 150 cusecs from Western Yamuna Canal is being used exclusively for irrigation in Delhi. This would reveal that the extension in canal irrigation from Western Yamuna Canal source has made a good headway. Some irrigation is also done from Eastern Yamuna Canal in Uttar Pradesh and during 1967-68, the irrigated area was 400 hectares against the total cultivable commandable area of 1790 hectares. This is, however, a minor source of irrigation. From Western Yamuna Canal there could be secured further intensive supply of water by raising the water allowance from 1.9 to 2.4 cusecs per 400 hectares.

It was planned in the Fourth Five Year Plan (1969-70 to 1973-74) to line the *kacha* water courses on canals and thereby save the irrigation potential which in turn can be used for extension of irrigation for an additional area of 160 hectares.

Minor Irrigation

From among the various categories of minor irrigation sources *viz.*, tanks, wells, lift irrigation and effluent water, the importance of tank irrigation is declining, total area irrigated by tanks being only 497 hectares during 1970-71 against 1473 hectares only five years back in 1965-66.

A major portion of the existing tanks and *bunds* are in the Mehrauli block. Alongwith steep slope in the terrain here, there are also flat grounds which can be bounded by the embankment and where rain water can be stored. Total area benefitted by these *bunds* is 368 hectares (910 acres) (Table 6).

TABLE 6

Tank bunds in Delhi Territory

Name of Bund	Length (Feet)	Area benefitted (acres)
Dera Bund . . .	3,700	150
Assula Bund . . .	3,100	100
Gadaipur Bund . . .	9,500	50
Sultanpur Bund . . .	6,200	100
Rajokri Bund . .	6,500	Basin since acquired for defence works
Baijawasan Bund . . .	10,000	150
Deoli Adjoining Bund .	4,000	20
Fatehpur Beri Bund .	700	340

These *bunds* have been constructed over *nallahs* coming from a hilly tract on the Southern boundary of the Territory flowing through the Mehrauli block The rain water coming into the *nallahs* is checked by these *bunds* and spreads over large tracts upstream The water is drained out through regular outlets after monsoon The retention of water results in soakage of soil which helps in the raising of *rabi* crops, controlling soil erosion and raising the ground water level

Tubewells

As for tubewells there were already, 1998 big and small tubewells in 1968-69 in the Union Territory During the years 1969-70 and 1970-71, sixty new tubewells were installed for the use of small farmers under the minor irrigation schemes Each tubewell is capable of irrigating about 12 hectares of land

Lift Irrigation

Lift irrigation is rather unimportant in the Territory, but there are possibilities of tapping the Najafgarh Drain waters There is already a scheme known as Goela Lift Irrigation Scheme which aims at making use of 21 cusecs of discharge to cover cultivable

commandable area of 3040 hectares and thus annually irrigate 1,520 hectares in Najafgarh block This scheme involves pumping of water from Najafgarh lake by storing supplies in the Najafgarh basin up to a level which otherwise normally remains submerged and consequently uncultivated

A mobile unit of pumping sets has been set up under the Fourth Five Year Plan for providing irrigation facilities to the small cultivators The unit is equipped with 8 pumping sets and one jeep

Wells

There were about 10 7 thousand wells in the Union Territory by 1968 With the importance of well irrigation in the context of green revolution the Fourth Plan aimed at exploiting the underground water resources further Besides technical guidance to the farmers for the digging of wells and installation of tubewells, institutional credit is also being made available to the cultivators for minor irrigation works

The contribution of minor irrigation has increased appreciably during the last four years Total area irrigated by wells and tubewells increased from 18 thousand hectares during 1965-66 to 34 7 thousand hectares during 70-71 The Fourth Plan had a target of providing irrigation facilities for an additional area of 16 46 thousand hectares so that total irrigated area in the Territory by 1973-74 is increased to 70 4 thousand hectares as against 57 0 thousand hectares during 1969-70 This indicates the potentialities of irrigation in the Union Territory where a major part of the cultivated area may be provided with assured water supply and help to produce a substantial portion of the vegetables and milk requirements for the fast expanding urban population from within the territory itself

Effluent irrigation system which was under the Delhi Municipal Corporation has been transferred to Delhi Administration with effect from April 1971 At present about 880 hectares of land is being irrigated by the treatment plants

In order to increase the irrigation capacity, following schemes were included in the Fourth Five Year Plan

(a) Installation of State shallow tubewells

(b) Raising a mobile unit of Diesel pumping sets

(c) Construction of new ponds and restoration of old *bunds* should be bigger point

(d) Extension of an effluent irrigation from the following sewage treatment plants

(i) *Okhala sewage treatment plant*—At present the effluent from the Okhla sewage treatment plant is being utilised for irrigation purposes only in the areas where gravity irrigation is possible A new scheme envisages bringing areas at higher level under effluent irrigation It has been approved by the Ministry of Food and Agriculture and is estimated to cost Rs 8 50 lakhs The scheme is expected to provide effluent irrigation facilities for an area of 300 hectares

(ii) *Keshopur treatment plant*—The present alignment of Keshopur sewage treatment plant passes through areas which are being developed by the Delhi Development Authority It is, accordingly proposed to take the effluent from this plant to new areas on the other side of the Najafgarh drain for the purpose of irrigation It will provide effluent irrigation facilities for an area of 756 hectares in Nangloi block

The Alipur block supported by geophysical and geological studies is promising as a ground water source of supply up to a depth of about 100 feet Delhi Territory has, by and large, shown very poor results in other blocks with regards to ground water potential The water has generally been found brackish and is not fit for drinking purposes

((iii) *Coronation treatment plant*—It is also proopsed to construct sub-channels from Coronation treatment plant of the length of 1 5 kms in the year 1973-74 to irrigate fields situated at distances It is expected that the scheme on completion will provide irrigation facilities to an additional area of 40 hectares

(e) Exploitation and exploration of ground-water resources

Under this scheme, an engineering division to look after the work of exploration/investigation and assessment of ground-water resources has been set up The division provides technical guidance to the farmers in connection with the digging of wells and installation of tubewells An allocation of Rs 4 00 lakhs was being required in 1973-74 for being utilised on the continuation of staff, petrol, purchase of spare parts etc

(f) Isolated drainage scheme for the improvement of agricultural land

Under this scheme it is proposed to provide drainage facilities in the isolated pockets of low lying agricultural areas in the Union Territory Drainage facilities have already been provided in two villages, one each in Nangloi and Alipur blocks

Cropping Pattern

A very important feature of irrigation in Delhi is that there was hardly any practice of double cropping on irrigated lands as late as 1960-61 This is rather strange because as much as 38 9 per cent of the net sown area received irrigation, but the double cropped area which came to about 30 per cent of the net sown area was all unirrigated (Appendix V) With practically the whole of rain concentrated during June to August, only crops like gram and bajra figured prominently in the cropping pattern of Territory These two together occupied as much as 36 per cent of the gross cropped area during 1950-51 as well as 1960-61 and over 42 per cent during 1955-56 (Table 11)

The changes in the cropping pattern and the implied emphasis on certain crops as against others is the result of the introduction of high yielding varieties Increased irrigation facilities have also been allocated by the cultivators to those very crops for which he has economic preferences From the total irrigated area of 54 thousand hectares during 1968-69, foodgrains accounted for as much as 44 6 thousand hectares (82 4 per cent) and from among the foodgrains, wheat alone got as much as 34 7 thousand hectares (64 per cent of the total irrigated area under foodgrains Table 8) Increase in the irrigated area under foodgrains as well as wheat has taken place from 1965-66 onwards During the first decade (1950-51 to 1960-61) irrigated area under total

foodgrains increased from 20 to 21 thousand hectares but its percentage share in the total irrigated area declined from 62.5 to 61.8. Corresponding to this, the position with regard to wheat was not very much different when irrigated wheat area increased from 14 to 16 thousand hectares (Table 7)

TABLE 7

Irrigated area under principal crops in Delhi

('000 hectares)

	1950-51	1955-56	1960-61	1965-66	1967-68
Wheat . . .	14 (43 8)	15 (46 9)	16 (47 1)	20 (51 3)	18 (46 2)
Total foodgrains . .	20 (62 5)	20 (62 5)	21 (61 8)	25 (64 1)	23 (59 0)
Sugarcane	1 (3 1)	2 (6 3)	5 (14 7)	5 (12 8)	2 (5 1)
Fruits and vegetables including root crops	N.A.	4 (12 5)	4 (11 8)	5 (12 8)	4 (10 8)
Fodder crops .	N A	3 (9 4)	2 (5 9)	4 (10 3)	2 (2 1)
Total irrigated .	32 (100)	32 (100)	34 (100)	39 (100)	31 (100)

NOTE (i) Figures in brackets relate to percentage to the total irrigated
(ii) N A —Information is not available

As in the case of adjoining states major part of the existing as well as additional irrigation facilities in the Territory are being diverted to foodgrains, particularly wheat (Table 8).

TABLE 8

Area Irrigated under principal crops in Delhi

Crops	Area (Hectares) (1968-69)	Percentage to total area irrigated (1968-69)	Area (Hectares) (1969-70)	Percentage to total area irrigated (1969-70)	Area (Hectares) (1970-71)	Percentage to total area irrigated (1970-71)	Area (Hectares) (1971-72)	Percentage to total area irrigated (1971-72)
1 *Food Grains*								
Wheat	31,730	64.23	36,255	63.13	38,914	69.26	44,538	73.13
Gram	151	0.83	217	0.38	376	0.67	253	0.42
Barley	936	1.73	742	1.29	451	0.80	467	0.77
Bajra	1,383	2.56	1,445	2.52	999	1.78	246	0.40
Maize	964	1.78	796	1.39	371	0.66	359	0.59
Jowar	1,713	3.17	2,169	3.78	1,474	2.62	960	1.58
Rice	2,531	4.68	2,426	4.22	2,075	3.69	2,054	3.37
Others	1,837	3.40	1,915	3.33	1,825	3.25	2,072	3.40
TOTAL I	44,545	82.38	45,965	80.04	46,515	82.73	50,949	83.66

2 Fruits and Veg·tables	4,019	7 43	4,459	7 76	4,450	7 92	5,106	8 38
3 Sugarcane	2 117	3 92	2,339	4 07	1,792	3 19	921	1 51
Cotton	240	0 44	237	0 41	140	0 25	244	0 40
Oil Seeds . . .	143	0 27	158	0 28	97	0 17	402	0 66
Tobacco	63	0 12	80	0 14	46	0 08	66	0 11
Fodder	2,757	5 10	4,090	7 12	3,121	5·55	3,053	5 01
Other Crops (1,2 & 3) .	184	0 34	105	0 18	64	0 11	165	0 27
Total all Crops (1,2 & 3)	54,068	100 00	57,433	100 00	56,225	100 00	60,906	100 00

Source *Delhi Statistical Hand Book* 1970 *and* 1973.

Irrigated area under other crops like fruits, vegetables and fodder has not undergone a substantial change but sugarcane has suffered at the hands of food-grains as irrigated area has declined from five thousand hectares during 1960-61 as well as 1965-66 to two thousand hectares during 1967-68 (Table 7)

Agriculture Including Horticulture

Soils

The soils of Delhi are generally of medium fertility Delhi soils have been influenced by the river Yamuna, the flood waters, the ridge and the winds from the south western direction On the basis of these various influences on soil formation, the Delhi Territory is divided into four physiographic divisions

(i) *Khadar* or the new alluvium
(ii) *Bangar* or the old alluvium
(iii) *Dabar* or low lying areas
(iv) *Kohi* or rocky or hilly areas

The southern portion near Mehrauli and Tughluqabad being hilly is known as *Kohi* The low lying strip of land along the Yamuna is called *Khadar* and the tract lying to the north of the ridge and west of the Grand Trunk road, which separates it from the *Khadar*, is a level plane known as *Bangar* There is a depression near the township of Najafgarh where water from the western side of the ridge accumulates during the rainy season and forms into what is known as Najafgarh lake This locality has hard soil known as *Dabar*

Soils Of The Khadar Areas

The soils show distinct stratification They are finer at the top and coarser down below They are usually silt loam to loamy land and sand Clay content generally varies between 13 and 17 per cent and in lower horizons it is below ten per cent The structure is mainly single grain or weakly developed granular Calcium carbonate is irregularly distributed and ranges 1—4 per cent The Ph value varies from 8 0 to 8 8 and soils are somewhat more alkaline with depth On an average soils are fertile and with good management practices high yields of crops can be obtained There are areas which get submerged during high flood periods and monsoon season

Soils are suitable for a variety of crops Due to enough moisture in *kharif*, growing of vegetables of the *cucurbit* type will prove great success The soils have been further reported into four series representing the *Khadar* They are Palla, Shahdara,

Gokalpur and Madanpur. There is also a fifth series, namely Alipur, which represents the transitional zone between the recent and the old alluvium.

Soils Of The Bangar (Old Alluvium)

Physiographically *Bangar* tract is situated away from the Yamuna and constitutes north-western portion of Delhi Large area of the tract is subject to inundation by rain water which does not find any exist on account of poor external drainage Recently a few new drains have been laid to drain out water from the low lying area Majority of the soils are irrigated by canals and wells and a small area is rainfed Soils of the canal irrigated area are characterised by high water table. Frequently, patches of saline alkali soils are met with in cultivated soils Fairly large area have gone out of cultivation due to high salinity Usually the PH value increases with depth The soils are generally fertile with high moisture holding capacity The average nitrogen content of the cultivated area is 0 045 per cent

Variety of crops can be grown on soils of this tract Paddy has a great success on heavy textured soils in the low lying area.

There are five soil series which can be identified in this area They are Alipur, Gheora, Karala, Ladpur and Najafgarh. Najafgarh is the only series which is excessively drained and is characterised by the presence of sand dunes in the area or of sandy nature of the soils and is also not subject to flooding

Soils Of The Dabar Tract (Low lying area)

As the name indicates the *Dabar* tract is frequently flooded during the monsoon because the only drain (Najafgarh drain) is not able to drain out all the flood water Large areas remain submerged under water and saline-alkali soils are frequently seen This tract comprises the south-western and western portion of Delhi Territory Generally the soils are sandy loam in texture becoming slightly heavier with depth and becoming lighter from east to west These soils are generally poor in organic matter and nitrogen The average nitrogen content of the cultivated area is 0 0'2 per cent There are four soil series identified in the tract They are Najafgarh Palam, Shikarpur and Ladpur

Soils Of The Kohi Tract (Hilly tract)

Soils of the *Kohi* tract are formed from the quartzite or sandstone rocks of Delhi ridge and local alluvium of the small streams The soils are modified to some extent by the acolian deposits Soil

texture varies from sandy loam to loam Clay loam types may also occasionally occur Due to uneven topography the soils are subject to erosion and in the extreme areas deep gullies are formed Occasionally calcium carbonate concretions are met with in the lower horizons, usually below 60 inches and PH varies from 7 0 to 8 0 General fertility of the area is from poor to medium The average nitrogen content of the cultivated area is about 0 035 percent Irrigation is a great problem as the water table is fairly low Soil erosion is another problem and soil conservation measures need to be intensified Depending on the availability of irrigation water, soils are suitable for a variety of field crops, vegetables and orchards Recently many progressive farmers have started grape cultivation in the area The soils are excessively drained with moderate permeability

In years of low rainfall the soils usually suffer from drought. By good management practices, it is possible to take two to three crops in the year There are two series identified in the tract. They are Delhi and the Mehrauli series The texture of soil ranges from sandy loam to sandy Saline and alkaline patches are frequent in *Dabar* and *Khadar* area The soils are rich in nutrients like calcium phosphorous and potash but are deficient in nitrogen

According to revenue classification, the soils are recorded as *Chahi* (land irrigated from wells) *Nahri* (land irrigated by canals) and *Abi* (land irrigated from other sources) Land entered as *Chahi* or *Abi* must receive water at least twice in the four years previous to measurement Certain lands which remain naturally moist or submergible by the Yamuna or other floods are entered as *Sailab (Dhari)* Land submergible from artificial embankment are called as *Sailab (Band)*

Unirrigated land (*Barani*) is sub-divided into *Dakar*, a stiff clay soil which ploughs up into solid clods generally found in depression and *Ratusli*—the ordinary light loam of the plain, a mixture of clay and sand varying much in their relative proportions Light soil with just enough clay in the mixture to allow cultivation is classified as *Bhur*

Apart from the artificial distinctions of irrigation and manure, the main distinctions in the soil depend on their natural composition and the nature of the subsrata All about the ridge, the soil is sedimentary, being gritty and shallow over the bed rock but in the rest of the Territory it is essentially alluvial The standard soil is the light loam termed *rausli* when enriched with extra clay it becomes *Dakar* and when adulterated with sand it becomes *Bhur* *Dakar* will be found in low-lying parts and more

especially where canal slit has given extra strength to the soil; *Bhur* represents the result of drainage washing away the lighter particles of soil or rock so that it is not unnaturally found chiefly near the river and the river and intracts immediately underlying the hills The heavy *Dakar* soil is precarious requiring good rain to ripen the richer crops, *Bhur*, on the other hand, bears only light crops of bajra or barley, which ripens, to some extent, even when the rainfall is short.

Soil Conservation

Due to the proximity of river Yamuna some parts of the Territory suffer from water logging and there is a need for soil conservation measures The Fourth Plan for the Union Territory provided for an outlay of Rs 15 lakhs for this sector Suitable steps are being taken to step up the pace of expenditure in this sector The physical targets fixed are reclamation of 400 hectares of saline and alkaline land and the plantation of three lakh trees of quick growing species . As against the likely expenditure of Rs 2 58 lakhs during the year 1971-72 an allocation of Rs 4·50 lakhs had been proposed for 1972-73 Physical targets fixed for the year were reclamation of 101 hectares of saline and alkaline land and plantation of 1 5 lakh trees of quick growing species Since the scheme of 'Farm Forestry' was proposed to be taken up on accelerated basis from the next year, a provision of Rs 10 lakhs made for it in the Fourth Plan was proposed to be enhanced to Rs 13 5 lakhs

Crops

The cropping pattern in a particular region is primarily determined by natural factors like rainfall and soil conditions Technical factors like irrigation, improved varieties of seeds and the use of fertilisers also have a pronounced effect on the cultivator's preferences in favour of a particular crop. Keeping in line with the All-India pattern, even in a Union Territory like Delhi there has been a shift in the area under wheat from that of gram and barley with the introduction of high yielding and short-duration varieties the cultivator has also been enabled to resort to multiple cropping which is the latest trend in advanced agriculture To grow more than one crop on a unit of land in a unit of time is the principle behind this new system In a way, multiple cropping is the logical sequence of the high-yielding varieties programme introduced in 1967-68. Sowing, harvesting and peak marketing periods in the Union Territory for important crops are as shown in Table 9:

TABLE 9

Seasons of principal crops grown in Union Territory of Delhi

Crop	Sowing period	Harvesting period	Peak marketing period
Rice	July	October-November	November-December
Jowar (fodder)	April-July	September-November	September-November
Bajra	July	October-November	November
Maize	June-July	October	November
Wheat	November-December	April	May-June
Barley	October-November	March	April
Gram	September-October	March-April	May
Tur	(i) June-July	November	December
	(ii) July-August	April	May
Potatoes			
(i) Winter	October	January	January
(ii) Summer	February	June	June-July

Sugarcane . .	March-April	November-March	December-March
Chillies (Dry) . .	July	January-February	March
Tobacco . .	November-December March-April	February-March June	March-April July
Rape & Mustard . .	October	March	April
Linseed	November	April	May
Cotton . .	May-June	October-November	November-December
Sweet Potatoes . .	July	November July, January	November July, January

Although there is a decline in the net sown area in the Union Territory of Delhi as mentioned earlier, double cropped area as a percentage of the net sown area has increased from 19 8 per cent during 1950-51 to 38 5 per cent during 1969-70 as against an All-India figure of about 16 per cent in 1969-70 This is primarily due to the availability of more and better irrigation facilities More than 50 per cent of the net as well gross sown area received irrigation in this Union Territory during 1969-70 Steps are being taken to increase irrigation facilities

Important crops grown in the Union Territory are wheat, gram bajra barley, jowar, rice and sugarcane About 16 per cent of the total cultivated area is also devoted to other crops like fruits and vegetables and fodder etc Over 80 per cent of the total cropped area in the Union Terirtory goes to foodgrains, of which over 40 per cent is taken away by wheat alone Rabi crops—wheat gram and barley occupied as much as 52 per cent of the total cropped area during 1970-71 While area under wheat has more or less doubled during the last 20 years, the one under gram has come down from 33 7 thousand hectares in 1955-56 to 9 9 thousand hectares during 1970-71 It touched as low a figure as 4 6 thousand hectares during 1968-69 The decline in the area under gram represents a shifts to wheat which is much more marked after 1967-68 when high yielding varieties of wheat were introduced in the country

Area under barley has also suffered a substantial cut having been reduced to about 50 per cent from its high level of 5 7 thousand hectares during 1950-51 and the peak of 6 1 thousand hectares during 1967-68 (Table 10 and 11).

TABLE 10

Distribution of area under different crops from 1966-67 to 1969-70

(Percent)

Sl. No.	Crops	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69	1969-70
1	Rice	1 4	1 7	3·1	2 5
2	Jawar	9 6	10 1	8 0	7 2
3	Bajra	16 0	17 3	19 1	18 8
4	Maize	1 4	1 4	1 4	1 2
5	Wheat	30 8	32 6	41 8	40 5
6	Barley	4 6	5 3	2 5	2 5
7	Other Cereals & Millets	1 5	0 5	1 1	2 6
8	Gram	10 6	13 8	4 6	5 2
9	Pulses	3 5	3 2	3 2	3 2
10	Sugarcane	3 0	1 7	2 3	2 2
11	Chillies	0 3	0 4	0 1	0 2
12	Fruits	1 0	1 4	1 3	1 4
13	Potatoes	0 2	0 2	0 3	0 2
14	Vegetables	5 5	2 5	3 9	2 9
15	Other food crops	0 6	neg	neg	0 1
16	Oilseeds	0 8	0 9	0 6	0 3
17	Cotton	0 2	0 2	0 3	0 2
18	Tobacco	0 1	0 1	0 1	0 1
19	Fodder	8 9	5 7	5 2	7 2
20	Other non-food crops	neg	1 0	1 1	1 5
	TOTAL	100 0	100 0	100 0	100 0

TABLE 11

Area under selected crops in Delhi

(in hectars)

Crops	1950-51	1955-56	1960-61	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69	1969-70	1970-71
Wheat	22,570	28,482 (21 8)	28,023 (24 7)	29,676 (29 8)	32,747 (30 8)	37,935 (32 6)	41,842 (41 8)	44,758 (40 5)	45,475 (41 1
Gram .	21,037	33,670 (25 8)	24,576 (21 7)	11,546 (11 6)	11,284 (10 6)	16,036 (13 8)	4,625 (4 6)	5,736 (5 2)	9,939 (9 0)
Barley	5,699	4,684 (3 6)	4,576 (4 0)	3,282 (3 3)	4,919 (4 6)	6,129 (5 3)	2,456 (2 5)	2,714 (2 5)	2,050 (1 9)
Bajra . .	16,530	21,805 (16 7)	15,355 (13 5)	17,421 (17 5)	16,957 (16 0)	20,112 (17 3)	19,130 (19 1)	20,760 (18 8)	23,62 (21 4)
Maize . . .	725	1,288 (1 0)	1,130 (1 0)	852 (0 9)	1,522 (1 4)	1,593 (1 4)	1,412 (1 4)	1,317 (1 2)	1,204 (1 1)
Jawar . .	12,706	13,637 (10 4)	12,227 (10 8)	10,040 (10 0)	10,208 (9 6)	11,795 (10 1)	7,988 (8 0)	7,934 (7 2)	10,448 (9 4)
Rice . . .	195	326 (0 2)	1,210 (1 1)	1,065 (1 1)	1,434 (1 4)	2,032 (1 7)	3,138 (3 1)	2,784 (2 5)	2,378 (2 2)

Total (Foodgrains)	79,462	1,03,892 (79 5)	87,097 (76 8)	73,882 (74 1)	79,071 (74 4)	95,632 (82 2)	80,591 (80 5)	86,003 (77 9)	95,119 (86 1)
Potatoes . .		29 (0 02)	187 (0 2)	229 (0 2)	166 (0 2)	254 (0 2)	251 (0 3)	275 (0 2)	329 (0 3)
Sugarcane . .	1,490	2,853 (2 2)	5,512 (4 9)	5,918 (6 0)	3,162 (3 0)	1,942 (1 7)	2,338 (2 3)	2,463 (2 2)	1,961 (1 8)
Cotton . . .	157	206 (0 2)	193 (0 2)	327 (0 3)	283 (0 2)	240 (0 2)	313 (0 3)	248 (0 2)	194 (0 2)
Others . . .		23,690 (18 1)	20,493 (18 1)	19,340 (19 4)	23,633 (22 2)	18,322 (15 7)	16,524 (16 5)	21,582 (19 5)	12,961 ((11 7)
Total . .		1,30,670 (100 0)	1,13,482 (100 0)	99,726 (100 0)	1,06,215 (100 0)	1,16,390 (100 0)	1,00,01 (100 0)	1,10,571 (100 0)	1,10,571 (100 0)

Source . Statistical Hand-Book, 1972—p 49
Bureau of Economics and Statistics

Major kharif cereal grown in the Union Territory is bajra which has improved its position appreciably from 16 5 thousand hectares in 1950-51 to 23 6 thousand hectares during 1970-71 This increase is also the result of the introduction of hybrid bajra and the change in the area has taken place from 1967-68. Although high yielding varieties of jawar are also available, area under this crop has gone down to about 10 5 thousand hectares during 1970-71 from 13 6 thousand hectares during 1955-56 This would only indicate that under the agro-climatic conditions prevailing in the Territory, it is not profitable for the cultivator to go in for high yielding varieties of jawar for grams The cultivators prefer cultivation of jawar for fodder purposes only More or less same is the position in the adjoining states of Punjab and Haryana where bajra and not jowar is an important kharif grain crop The impact of high yielding varieties is also felt on rice From a negligible figure of 195 hectares during 1950-51, the area under the crop touched an all time high of 3 1 thousand hectares during 1968-69

With this change in the cropping pattern both in total as well as productivity of a crop like wheat has undergone a substantial change The production of wheat has gone up from 14 2 thousand tonnes during 1950-51 to about 88 thousand ton as compared to All-India levels (Table 12)

TABLE 12

Area, production and yield of principal crops in Delhi

Area '000 hectares
Production '000 tonnes
Yield Kgs per hectare

	1950-51	1955-56	1960-61	1965-66	1970-71
1	2	3	4	5	6
Wheat					
Area	22 6	23 5	28 0	29 7	45 5
Production	14 2	16 3	28 4**	40 1	87 99*
Yield	628	574	1,019	1,350	1,932

1	2	3	4	5	6
Gram					
Area	21 0	33 6	24 6	11 6	9 9
Production .	2 0	2 0	18 3**	5 9	5 7*
Yield . .	96	61	741	@	576
Bajra					
Area .	16 5	21 8	15 4	17 4	23 6
Production . .	9 1	10 2	7 1	9 1	23 2*
Yield .	471	465	463	@	983
Maize					
Area .	0 8	1 2	1 1	0 8	1 2
Production . .	(b)	(b)	1 0	0 5	0 7
Yield .	628	628	837	@	583
Barley					
Area . . .	5 7	4 7	4 5	3 3	2 1
Production . .	1 0	1 0	1 0	0 5	1 9*
Yield . .	179	210	229	@	905
Total area of above items	66 5	89 8	73 7	62 8	82 3
Gross Cropped Area	112 5	130 7	113 5	100 0	110 5
Percentage of total area of above Crops to Gross Cropped Area	59 1	68 8	64 9	62 8	74 5

@—Crop being unimportant in Territory, average yield has been calculated.

*—Based on the results of crop cutting surveys

**—Production is based on C S.S. results

(b) — Below 500 tons

This represents an increase of more than 6 times in production during the last 20 years Average yield in the case of wheat has also improved from 628 kilograms per hectares dur-

ing 1950-51 to 1932 kilograms during 1970-71 The average yields in Delhi for the important food crops are much higher as compared all-India levels (Table 13)

TABLE 13

Average yield of important food crops in India and Delhi, 1970-71

(Kgs per hectare)

	India	Delhi
Wheat	1,299	1,932
Bajra	620	983
Barley	1,103	905

Wheat

Earlier it was the common varieties of *Lal Safed*, and C5912 *Munda* (beardless) varieties of wheat which were commonly grown in the area With the introduction of high yielding varieties since 1967-68 they have primarily been replaced by *Kalyan Sona* S-308 and *Sonalika* etc Area under these varieties increased from 1299 hectares during 1966-67 to 27 3 thousand hectares during 1968-69 a coverage of over 64 per cent of the total area under the crop this further increased to 37 thousand hectares during 1970-71

Wheat if unirrigated, must be sown in fields of *Dakari* nature It is, therefore, grown mainly on *Nahri* and *Sailab* lands where silt has enriched the soil Cultivators begin to plough the fields after July rains and go over the ground six times or more applying *Sohaga* as soon as the sun has dried the clods, manure and fertilisers are given especially on irrigated lands The seed is sown with a drill towards the month of November, usually after the first *Palewa* Improved drills have been introduced in the area because of the need for careful depth of seeding for the Mexican varieties Irrigation is given five times as a rule, and in a year of drought as many as seven times For *Barani* cultivation rain is required in October, November and January The land is weeded twice if irrigated and once if *Barani* Since rains during this part of the year are rather scanty, unirrigated wheat does not thrive well in the Union Territory The crop ripens by the end of April and is invariably thrashed by improved threshers

Along with the utilisation of irrigation facilities available in the Union Territory, the use of fertilisers for wheat has also increased tremendously. The consumption of fertilisers in the Union Territory increased from 397 thousand tonnes of nitrogen during 1964-65 to 2146 thousand tonnes during 1968-69 and the share of wheat in the total fertiliser consumption increased from 48 per cent during 1964-65 to 66 per cent during 1968-69 Of the total area under wheat nearly 69 per cent was fertilised by nitrogeneous fertilisers during 1968-69 which was nearly double the area fertilised during 1964-65 As for unit consumption of nitrogen, the same was also the highest at 35 4 kgs per hectare during 1968-69 Of the total phosphatic fertilisers consumed, wheat accounted for 78 per cent during 1968-69 as against only 40 per cent during 1965-66 Of the total phosphatic fertilisers consumed, wheat accounted for 78 per cent during 1968-69 as against only 40 per cent during 1965-66 In terms of quantity, this was three times more compared to that in 1967-68 Area benefitted by phosphatic fertilisers was 14 per cent during 1968-69 as against less than 4 per cent during the previous year As in the previous years wheat area benefitted by Farm-yard manure continued to be around 40 per cent during 1968-69 and the crop shared nearly 50 per cent of the total farm yard manure utilised in the Union Territory

Gram, Bejhar and Gochani

Gram is sometimes grown as a single crop, but more often along with barley or wheat, mixed crops being known as *Bejhar* and *Gochani* respectively It is unusual to find gram on irrigated land, for it requires little extra moisture so long as there is some winter rain It flourishes on a light soil It is an important crop in the *Barani* tracts It is an early crop as the sowings begin in September and harvesting is over latet by nearly April ; the crop husbandry is similar to that of barley

Area under gram has declined appreciably over the last few years as a result of the introduction of high yielding varieties and the availability of larger irrigation facilities in the area No improved varieties of gram are yet available Yields are, primarily dependent upon soil moisture available from rainfall Available data shows that gram yields have varied from as high a figure as 1194 kg per hectare during 1967-68 to 443 kgs per hectare during 1966-67

Bajra

Bajra is one of the important *Kharif* crops grown in Union Territory of Delhi The crop is primarily grown on *Barani* lands During the year 1968-69, only 2 56 per cent of the area grown

under this crop was irrigated It is grown almost on all types of soils in Delhi As compared to other crops bajra requires comparatively less attention in terms of management

Primarily before 1968-69, only *Desi* variety of bajra was pre-dominant in the area but later on Hybrid bajra especially Hybrid-I H-3 and Hybrid-4 have become popular with the cultivators The yield of these varieties is comparatively 2 to 3 times more than that of the *Desi* variety grown earlier The ear-heads of Hybrid varieties of bajra are longer and compact in size having bolder grains Of the total cultivated area of 23 6 thousand hectares during 1970-71, about 56 per cent was grown under high yielding varieties The crop of bajra is primarily grown with the on-set of monsoon, i e, in the month of July In case the monsoon is earlier sporadic sowings are also noticed in the month of June This crop normally takes 3 to 4 months to mature and ordinarily harvesting takes place during October The crop grown later either due to lack of rainfall or irrigation facilities matures in early November

The share of fertilisers consumed by bajra which is the second major food crop of the Territory, declined from 18 per cent during 1967-68 to 12 per cent during 1968-69 The quantity consumed has however remained the same as during the previous year Area benefitted by nitrogenous fertilisers has continuously increased during the five year period and stood at 37 per cent during 1968-69 Similar trend was also seen in the rate of application of nitrogen which increased from 10 7 kgs per hectares during 1964-55 to 27 1 kgs per hectare during 1968-69 In the total phosphatic fertilisers consumed during 1968-69 the share of bajra was reduced to only 14 per cent as against 38 per cent during the previous year Area benefitted by this type of fertiliser however increased from three per cent during the last three years to 7 per cent during 1968-69 The rate of application of phosphatic fertilisers has also increased from year to year and touched the highest level of 44 2 kgs of phosphorus (P_2O_5) per hectare during 1968-69 Next to wheat, bajra shared 16 per cent of the total Farm yard manure applied in the Union Territory during 1966-69

Maize

Area under maize crop is very small in the Union Territory as compared to that of bajra and jawar Maize crop is grown normally on well drained and light soils where stagnation of water does not occur Like bajra two types of maize

have been grown in Delhi Territory namely *Desi* and hybrid varieties. *Desi* varieties have now been replaced by and large by Hybrid varieties such as Ganga-I, Ganga-3 and Ganga-5. Lately a few composit varieties of maize have also been released such as *Jawahar, Kisan, Vijay* and *Vikram* Out of these, *Vijay* and *Kisan* seem to have done better under Delhi conditions The maize crop is grown from the middle of June to middle of July and is harvested normally after 100 to 110 days after sowing The main disease noticed on the maize crop in Delhi Territory is bacterial root rot It is very common in heavy soils or in fields where stagnation of water occurs

Total area under maize during 1968-69 was hardly two per cent Farmers are taking up gradually the application of inorganic fertilisers such as Calcium Amonia Nitrate and Urea for Nitrogen and Super Phosphate and Di-Ammonia Phosphate for Phosphorus However, in the year 1968-69 hardly two per cent of the nitrogenous fertilisers were applied to this crop The rate of application of Nitrogen stood at 25 kg per hectare during 1968-69

Sugarcane

A field which becomes fallow in mid or late winter after harvest of late *Kharif* or early autumn crops is subjected to about four ploughings during December, January and February and is very heavily manured, a watering is given to be followed by another ploughing and the field is then ready to receive the seed setts which have been in the meantime prepared from the previous year's crop At the harvest time, the stalks selected for seed are stripped of the leaves and buried in a pit, or else covered with earth in a raised bed in a corner of the plot to be cultivated In late February or March these stalks are taken out or full canes are stripped and cut into seed setts of lengths of about one foot each having three buds These seed setts are ready for planting With the help of plough wide furrows are drawn in the field and cane setts are laid flat in the furrows end to end and finally the *Sohaga* (a heavy *kikar* plank) is run across the field to effectually cover it up In about a fortnight, the buds in the cane start sprouting and thereafter the field is hoed to ensure unimpeded growth of plants Frequent irrigations are given and the crop is hoed or cultivated to check weed growth. Fertiliser application is done with the onset of monsoon rains.

After August weeding is stopped, so that, beyond watering, little attention is necessary As the crop grows taller there is

the danger of its lodging and exposing its roots. Two to three adjacent plants are, therefore, tied together at the top to give support to one another From November onward the came matures and harvesting starts The stalks are cut off near the ground, stripped of the trash and green tops are carted away to the press (*kohlu*) for taking out the juice and preparing '*gur*' for the market.

Major And Subsidiary Crops

Fruit Trees

Mango.—Dusheharı and Neelum are the important mango varieties for Delhi region Neelum is regular bearing and dwarf in nature, more suited for kitchen gardening Recently a few promising new mango hybrids namely Dusheharı × Neelum, Neelum × Chausa; Dusheharı × Totaparı and Neelum × Totaparı have been developed at the I A R I,* New Delhi

A new, convenient and cheap method for propagating mango trees namely Veneer grafting has been pefected by the I A R I, New Delhi This can be used for establishing mango orchards *in situ* as well as for top dressing inferior and young mango seeding thress

It has also been found that biennial bearing in mango particularly in the variety Deshaharı can be regulated by partial deblossoming of the branches This distributes the crop over two years instead of having full load in one year.

Guava.—Lucknow-49, Allahabad Safeda are the two recommended varieties for Delhi region This can be easily propagated either by Veneer grafting, air layering or stooling

Grape.—The recommended varieties are Pusa Seedless, Beauty Seedless and Cardinal The Beauty Seedless and Cardinal can be trained on Head System 75 PPM of Gibberelic acid on clusters of berry shatter stage has been found to increase the bunch of berry weight by 75-80%

Grape fruit.—Foster, Dimcan and March are the recommended varieties.

Straw berry.—The variety Pusa Early Dwarf is recommended for cultivation around Delhi An application of Gibberelic acid 75 PPM in November has been found to increase yield by 200 per cent.

*Indian Agriculture Research Institute.

Tomato.—A selection Sl 120 resistent to nematodes has been evolved The fruits are crimson, globuse in shape. Seed treatment for 24 hours with 2, 4-D (2 5—5 PPM) and whole plant spray 1-2 PPM) increase yield by 30-35 per cent.

Brinjal.—The recommended varieties are **Pusa Purple Long** and Pusa Purple Round FI hybrids of the combination Pusa Purple Long × Hyderpore give oblong, uniformly coloured attractive fruits with yield increase of about 80-100 per cent over Pusa Purple Long

Bottle Gourd.—F1 bybrids of the cross Pusa Summer Probific Long Sl No 2 in long types and that of Summer Prolific Round × Sl No 1 lin round types have yielded 100 per cent higher yield than the parental varieties Boron spray at two leaf s age at 3 PPM gave increased yield of 80-90 per cent

Radish.—An early Desi (Pungent) variety suitable for sowing in August and September has been evolved and performs well in and around Delhi

Watermelon.—An introduction in Watermelon called Sugar Baly has been found to yield medium sized sweet fruit with small seeds Seedless Water-melon has been developed Boron spray of 3 PPM at two leaf stage increased the yield by 60-70 per cent.

Cauliflower and Calibage.—Two varieties of Cauliflower Pusa Katki (early), Snow-Ball-16 (late) have been recommended FC 12013, a snow ball type of Cauliflower has been found to be a good variety giving equally good performance in different parts of the country

Cabbage.—Pusa Drum Head has been evolved which has resistance to black leg disease

Onion.—The two varieties, Early Grams and Pusa Red have been recommended This is one of vegetables which is exported in large quantities

Rotation Of Crops

By and large, the farmers of Delhi follow a sequence of raising two crops in a year In case of vegetable growers the progressive farmers raise three crops in one year The cropping sequences generally followed are:

(a) Two in a crops year

Bajra—Wheat

Maize—Wheat

Jawar fodder—Wheat

Jawar fodder—Berseem or oats

Early Cauliflower—Wheat

Jawar fodder—Cauliflower

(b) Two or three vegetables crops

Early Cucurbits—Cauliflower—Onion
(mid serson)

Maize Crop	Cauliflower	Onion
Kabri	Radish	Onion

Early Cucurbits--Tomato

Early Cucurbits—late Cauliflower

Early Cucurbits—Potato

Early Cucurbits—Bhindi

Kharif vegetables—Peas green

(c) Racently the progressive farmers have taken up a cropping sequence of raising three crops in a year

(1)	Bajra	Wheat	Mung
(2)	Maize	Wheat	Mung
(3)	Paddy	Wheat	Mung

(d) In the rainfed areas the common crop sequences are .

(1)	Fallow	Wheat
(2)	Bajra	Fallow
(3)	Bajra	Gram
(4)	Fallow	Gram

Intensive Vegetable Production Programme

Intensive Vegetable Production Programme, popularly known as 'crash programme' started functioning from December, 1964 Under this programme efforts are being made to bring additional area under the cultivation of vegetables in rural as well as urban areas. In the urban areas more kitchen gardens are being laid

out. Improved seeds, mostly raised at the Government farms, are made available to the vegetable growers. The achievements for the last three years are given below :

TABLE NO. 14

Vegetable programme in Delhi

Item	Achievements during the years		
	1968-69	1969-70	1970-71
Area brought under vegetable (thousand hectares)	14 8	16 2	18 0
Vegetable seeds distributed (thousand kgs)	28 3	25 1	32 8
Seeds Packets distributed (thousand numbers)	107 9	114 0	81 8
Seedlings distributed (lakh numbers)	19	25	12

Under this scheme, area under vegetables increased from four thousand hectares during 1964-65 to 14 8 thousand hectares in 1968-69 and 18 thousand hectares in 1970-71 The target for 1973-74 has been put at 28 thousand hectares In the case of kitchen gardens a *mali* looks after nearly a 100 of them On a rough estimate a kitchen garden owner derives a minimum benefit of Rs. 200 annually, giving a profit of more than Rs 10 lakhs annually against the service of only 54 *malis*.

According to a survey carried out during 1968-69, vegetables shares five per cent of Farm Yard Manure, four per cent of nitrogenous fertilizers and 3 per cent of phosphatic fertilizers The use of chemical fertilizers in vegetables is increasing. The rate of application of nitrogen improved from the level of 42.3 kg per hectare during 1967-68 to 49 7 kg during 1968-69 It has been observed that farmers are paying more attention to crops and varieties which are highly responsive to fertilizers

Seeds

One of the major factors contributing to the increased production of foodgrains in recent years, is the introduction of high yielding varieties programme Wheat and vegetable seeds in

particular and other seeds in general are being multiplied at Government Seed Farms to meet the ever increasing demand of high quality seed In all 3,582 quintals of high-yielding and improved seeds were made available to the cultivators by the agriculture department during 1968-69 as against 3,742 quintals during the previous year The decline was due to the fact that during the year the department did not supply seed in respect of hybrid maize and jawar Supply of wheat seed increased from 1,947 quintals in 1967-68 to 2,728 quintals during 1968-69 There are three State Seed Multiplication Farms which are responsible to give a boost to the programme Area under high yielding varieties has increased manifold during the last five years (Table 15)

TABLE 15

Seeds distribution programme

(Hectares)

	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69	1969-70	1970-71
Wheat	1,299	5,090	27,259		37,880
Hybrid Maize	162	219	291		600
Hybrid Bajra	304	3,373	4,439		13,200
Paddy	65	177	1,694		N A

According to the assessment survey during 1968-69 the percentage of cultivators utilising wheat seed from sources other than their own increased from 40 per cent in 1967-68 to 80 per cent during 1968-69 This increase was observed in all holding sizes and was as high as 96 per cent in the case of large and very large holdings During 1968-69, on an average a cultivator arranged 107 kg of wheat seed from outside agencies which was lower when compared with 190 kg and 147 kg during 1964-65 and 1967-68 respectively This clearly shows that while on the one hand the cultivator is on the look out for better and newer varieties on the other he is using better quality seed multiplied by him during the previous years

The position of *Kharif* crops is different, where the percentage of cultivators utilizing seed from outside agencies has declined from 55 to 50 in the case of Jawar, 49 to 40 in the case of

bajra and from 19 to 12 in the case of maize during the year 1968-69 when compared with the previous year Except for an increase in respect of cultivators belonging to large and very large holding size, there was a general decline in all other holding size groups This declining trend is also seen in the average quantity of seed received per cultivator. During 1968-69 a cultivator received on an average five kg of bajra seed from outside agencies, as against eight kg. of seed during either of the previous two years

Coverage of wheat and bajra under the H.Y V. programme during 1969-70 as compared with the neighbouring states is quite high as shown in (Table 16)

TABLE 16

Coverage under yielding high varieties in Delhi and adjoining States, 1969-70

(Per cent area)

State	Wheat	Bajra
Delhi	68 6	43 56
Haryana	43 26	14 00
Punjab . . .	65 58	50 17
Uttar Pradesh . .	30 49	2 15
Rajasthan . .	22 97	4 39

Fertilizers

The yield of a plant depends both on its innate genetic potential and on the availability of sunlight, moisture and nutrients Fertilizers are applied mainly to increase the supply of one or more of the essential nutrients such as Nitrogen (N), Phosphorous (P_2O_5) and Potash (K_2O) *etc* Since chemical fertilizers are most important for increasing crop production, efforts are being made to intensify the use of fertilizers During 1970-71, 14 9 thousand tonnes of chemical fertilizers were made available to the cultivators of which 12 6 thousand tonnes were nitrogenous (in terms of Ammonium Sulphate) and the rest phosphatic and potassic Progress in the use of fertilizers in the past few years is fantastic, (Table 17)

TABLE 17

Distribution of fertilizer in Delhi

(2 tonnes)

Name of the Fertilizer	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69	1969-70	1970-71	1971-72
Nitrogenous	1,847	3,392	4,516	6,496	10,470	10,752	12,588	11,695
Phosphatic	420	616	520	961	1,555	1,232	2,069	2,159
Potassic				42	79	126	241	346
TOTAL	2,267	4,008	5,066	7,499	12,104	12,110	14,898	11,200

Before 1963-64, Delhi was more or less at the bottom as compared to other neighbouring States in the matter of fertiliser consumption. But by 1969-70, fertiliser consumption per hectare cropped area in Delhi became more or less equal to that in the Punjab During 1970-71, the consumption of Nitrogen in the Territory increased to over 33 Kgs per hectare against 28.41 Kgs. in the previous year. (Table 18).

TABLE 18

Distribution of fertilizers per hectare of agricultural land and crop per area (1969-70)

	N	P_2O_5	K_2O	Total
Haryana .	7 49	0 35	0 24	8 18
Jammu & Kashmir .	1 27			127
Punjab	26 18	2 30	2 21	30 69
Rajasthan	0 99	0 51	0 05	1 55
Uttar Pradesh . .	4 86	0 57	0 70	6 13
Delhi . .	28 41	0 59	0 96	29.96
Himachal Pradesh	3 23	0 07	0 12	3 42

Source : Fertilizer Statistics 1969-70, Fertilizer Association of India New Delhi

During *Rabi* 1968-69, the number of cultivators applying chemical fertilizers singly or in conjunction with Farm Yard Manure (FYM) went up from 36 per cent in 1964-65 to 69 per cent in 1968-69, reflecting an increase of 92 per cent The use of chemi-fertilizers with or without F Y M. has increased in all the holding sizes While 40 per cent of the cultivators were using chemical fertilizers on very small holding, the percentage for large holdings was 82 About one-sixth of the cultivators are yet to be convinced of the need of using chemical fertilizers or organic manures Bulk of these cultivators belong to very small and small holdings

Fertilizer use is less common for *Kharif* crops Nevertheless the number of cultivators using chemical fertilizers singly or with F Y M. during the season increased from 30 per cent in 1964-65

to 43 per cent in 1968-69 Even the percentage of cultivators using chemical fertilizer alone increased from three in 1964-65 to 11 in 1968-69, which was also in keeping with the increases in the holding size During 1968-69, it was 15 per cent for every small holding and 62 per cent for large and very large holdings Percentage of cultivators using chemical fertilizers alone and along with F Y M for 1968-69 is given in Table 19

TABLE 19

Cultivators using chemical fertilizers and Farm Yard Manure

	Very small	Small	Medium	Large and very large	Pooled
Kharif	15	33	33	62	43
Rabi	40	58	70	82	69

Farm Yard Manure in the Territory is more popular during *Kharif* as compared to *Rabi* In general, farmers using Farm Yard Manure alone came down to 27 per cent in *Kharif* in 1968-69 from 46 per cent in 1964-65 The figures for *Rabi* show a decline from 26 per cent in 1964-65 to 14 per cent in 1968-69 The use of Farm Yard Manure however, is more popular with cultivators of small holdings as compared to large ones

TABLE 20

Percentage of cultivators using Farm Yard Manure during 1968-69

	Very small	Small	Medium	Large and very large	Pooled
Kharif	26	24	37	21	271
Rabi .	16	25	15	9	14

The Cropwise consumption of Compost and Chemical fertilizers and the area benefited is given in Appendix VIII and IX

Sludge Manure

Along with fertilisers, it is necessary to use organic manures and compost to maintain the water retentive property of the soil. Being near to a large metropolis, Delhi farmers have a great advantage of getting large quantities of urban compost and sludge quite cheaply. It is estimated that in 1967-68, 113 thousand tonnes of rural compost and 75 thousand tonnes of urban compost were available to Delhi farmers. During the Fourth Plan period, the availability of urban compost and sludge is likely to increase by about 400 thousand tonnes due to installation of one plant of mechanical compost sieving and two manufacturing plants of urban compost[1]

Plant Protection

The increased use of fertilizers and hybrid seeds has added a new dimension to the problem of plant protection. The high yielding varieties of crops are generally susceptible to disease and pest attack. There are several serious crop diseases found in this territory. Demonstrations carried out in 1968-69 revealed that in maize and Bajra a disease, namely *downy mildew* appeared. Another common disease, namely, *smut* and *zonate leaf spots* were also observed in bajra. In paddy crop, bacterial incidence of *tungro* like virus disease, due to which no grain was recovered, was noticed. Wheat crop was affected by seedling blight and root rot diseases. Among insects and pests in case of maize *Chilo Zonellus* and *Marasmia Trapezalis*, in paddy *Gundhi bug* (*Leptocorixa Varicornis*) were noticed. The sugarcane pest namely *Pyrilla* sometimes migrates to paddy crop. *Mung* plots were seen affected by *Chrotogonus*.[2]

In Delhi, pesticides are procured departmentally and are made available to the cultivators through the agency of Block Development Officers and a central store at the Headquarters. Plant Protection Cell arranges for technical advice and loans out equipment to the cultivators free of charge. During 1968-69 equipment worth Rs 48 thousand was purchased for the purpose by the Cell.

There is one mobile plant protection unit available for the immediate use of the cultivators for spraying and dusting pesticides on the crops. There has been a tremendous increase in the area on which pests and diseases have been controlled. Against 9 thousand hectares during 1964-65, the area has now gone to 147 thousand hectares during 1968-69. Similarly treatment of stored

[1] *Source Techno Economic Survey* N C A E R page 24
[2] *Ibid*

grain has increased from one thousand quintals to 204 thousand quintals during the same period (Table 21) Appendix X describes the traditional remedies undertaken for control of Agricultural diseases and pests for *Kharif* and *Rabi* crops

TABLE NO. 21

Plant protection activity In Delhi

Item	Unit	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69
Control of pests and diseases	'000 hectares	9	72	75	116	147
Weed control	Do	1	2	4	7	11
Rodent control	Do	85	89	193	374	517
Treatment of stored grain	'000 quintals	1	5	7	80	204
Pesticides used	Tonnes	24	26	39	114	75

There is an improved storage structure called Pusa Bin for storing grains pest free This is gradually getting popular among the farmers A limited number of farmers are controlling stored grain pests by fumigants Most of the farms, are still storing grains in *thekas* made up of gunny bags as well as in the tin bine

Agricultural Machinery

Agricultural machinery is another component of an advanced agriculture The introduction of Maxican wheat varieties which require careful depth of seeding have created the need for a good seed-cum-fertiliser drill and their increased yield has emphasised the need for machanical harvesting and threshing equipment Increased agricultural production through multiple cropping has further highlighted the need for timeliness of operations and thus the value of improved agricultural implements A list of various agricultural implements in use in the Union Territory is given in Appendix XI Under the tractor distribution programme loans are advanced to the cultivators for their purchase The result is that the total number of tractors in the Union Territory which was recorded at 406 during 1966 went up to 1150 during 1970. The number of power tillers also increased from two in 1966 to 39 in 1972 The number of improved harrows and cultivators, improved seed-drills as well as threshers had also increased appreciably. Average area per tractor in Delhi is 200 acres against 1300 acres in Punjab and 4,700 acres in Uttar Pradesh

A workshop for effecting repairs to improve agricultural implements has been set up The workshop provides guidance to the local fabricators, trains the village artisans and supply servicing facilities for tractors and other equipments Another activity associated with this workshop is to provide facilities for custom cultivation, harvesting and threshing by hiring out tractors, combine and threshers to the cultivators A new scheme of custom cultivation for the small farmers has also been started In the beginning, five tractors of 50 horse power and one harvester combine had been purchased by the department. The harvester combine has proved very useful and has been liked very much by the farmers

Agricultural Implements

The following implements machinery are generally possessed by farmers having bullocks and small holdings (less than five acres) in the Delhi region*

I (1) *Desi* plough and *pora* attachments
 (2) *Sohaga* or wooden leveller,
 (3) Spade, hand hoe, and/or *khurpi*,
 (4) Hand sickle;
 (5) Persian wheel for irrigation.

II Medium holdings (up to 12 acres) having bullocks.
 (1) *Desi* plough with *pora* attachments,
 (2) *Sohaga* or wooden leveller,
 (3) Spade, hand hoe, rotary hoe, paddy weeder and paddy puddler (the latter two in case of paddy cultivation),
 (4) Disc harrow,
 (5) *Kasola*,
 (6) Oilpad thresher;
 (7) Irrigation pump.

III Farms (small or medium holding, having tractor and electricity).
 (1) Tractor ;
 (2) Disc harrow ;
 (3) Power thresher ,
 (4) Electric motor

* *Source* : I.A.R.I

With the introduction of high yielding varieties programme, it became necessary to impart technical know-how to the farmer for undertaking improved agricultural operations

The Government of India sanctioned one farmers' training and education unit for Delhi area in December, 1968, along-with about 100 other such centres in the whole of the country. Staff has been separately provided to run institutional as well as non-institutional training and organising demonstration-*cum*-production training camps and *charcha mandals* in the rural area for high production and storage of farm production, etc

The achievements of the scheme since December, 1968, have been as under

Types of courses	No of courses during			Persons trained		
	1968-69	1969-70	1970-71	1968-69	1969-70	1970-71
Institutional Training						
Short Course for farmers	7	10	10	220	287	263
Short courses for woman		5	10		200	250
Three months course for young farmers		1			16	
Non-Institutional Training						
Production-*Cum*-demonstration camps	17	191	109	581	5,018	2,259
Farmers discussion groups		116	158		2,920	3,190
Farm women discussion groups		29	32		580	643

With a view to increasing the competancy of the farmers to rapidly adopt the new agricultural technology, 160 demonstrations were held on farmers fields during 1968-69 Out of these, 153 were for general crops and seven for multiple cropping.

Farm plans have been prepared to enable the cultivator to assess his resources, and requirements *viz.*, need of improved seeds, fertilizers, pesticides and plan out his crop rotation in order to get maximum production The progress in this respect has been as under:

Year	Number of farm plans
1964-65	7,469
1965-66	6,832
1966-67	6,273
1967-68	6,634
1968-69	4,860

Marketing

The Union Territory depends on imports of not only dairy, fish and horticultural products but also of foodgrains, sugar etc., from the different parts of the country Milk and milk products come from places as far as Gujarat Likewise 700 tonnes of fish is imported during the season from the neighbouring States of Haryana, Rajasthan, Punjab and also from the far off areas like Gujarat and Bombay Fruits and vegetables are being brought here not only from the hilly areas of Himachal Pradesh and Jammu and Kashmir but also from Bombay as well as other states all around The deficit in foodgrains is primarily met from Punjab, Haryana and Uttar Pradesh Same is the case in respect of sugar

All this creates a huge problem of management, transportation and storage A provision has been made in the Fourth Plan for the reclaimation of four new markets and arrangements have been made to establish a new fruit and vegetable market on the G T Road in Azadpur. Similar arrangements are being made with regard to the marketing of other products.

There are two regulated markets of Narela and Najafgarh in Delhi The procurement scheme of the Government for the purchase of *Kharif* and *Rabi* cereals operates in these two markets and the Food Corporation of India makes purchases from the producers through the purchase agents appointed on the basis of delivery at the godowns in Delhi at a consolidated rate of incidentals including their commission and transport cost. Since there is practically no marketable surplus in respect of paddy and jawar,

the total production is mopped up by the local hullers jawar is mainly used as fodder But for a small quantity of maize procured during 1970-71, no procurements have been made during 1971-72 primarily because prevailing prices were higher than the procurement price fixed by the Government

The existing storage capacity with the Food Corporation of India in the Union territory is 168 thousand tonnes covered and another 50 thousand tonnes as cap storage A Silo with 20 thousand tonnes capacity is under construction at Naraina depot and possibilities are being explored for acquiring land to construct another 10 thousand tonnes storage capacity for a conventional godown The Administration does not control any godowns

Community Development

The whole of rural Delhi is divided into five community development blocks and all of them are in post-stage II phase According to the 1961 census, there were in all 300 villages in the Union Territory of which 24 were uninhabited But according to the information as in April, 1970, the total number of villages was only 267, eight were under the Delhi Development Authority and the remaining 259 were covered by the Community Development Project (Table 22)

TABLE 22

Community Development Blocks

No of Villages	Alipur	Najafgarh	Kanjhawala Headquarter at Nangloi	Shahdara	Mehrauli
1	2	3	4	5	6
Rural	64	77	52	39	2
Urban	8	3	3	14	1
Area (hectares)	26,374	32,267	25,783	4,646	18,560
Population (1961)	72,453	77,029	72,454	27,795	48,13
Panchayats	44	61	49	20	21

1	2	3	4	5	6
Circle Panchayats . . .	3	7	5	3	3
Block staff :					
Extension Officers . . .	5	4	6	4	3
Group level workers . .	2	2	2	2	2
Village level workers . .	13	19	21	8	9
Panchayat Inspectors . .	1	1	1	1	1
Panchayat Secretaries .	14	21	17	5	6
Cooperative Inspectors . .	2	2	1	1	1
Cooperative sub-inspector .	5	4	4	3	3
J T A plant protection .	1	1	1	1	1

Almost all villages are connected by road and are on the electricity map of the Territory Panchayats in Delhi are governed by the Delhi Land Reforms Act 1959, Delhi Panchayat Raj Act 1954, and Delhi Panchayat Raj Rules, 1959

Credit and State Assistance to Agriculture

The Intensive Agriculture Development Programme.—Delhi has a full-fledged department for the development of Agriculture The entire rural area has been covered by the Intensive Agriculture Development Programme Delhi was one of the first District to introduce crop loan system which is based upon the requirements of the farmers according to this production programme This provides for the cultivator a simplified procedure with maximum flexibility to process loans and dispense credit rapidly Credit requirements of different types of farming like *Barani*, ordinary improved farming and high yielding varieties programmes have been worked out and the money is advanced on the basis of the farmers needs

Credit is advanced in three components The scale of finances of cooperative credit for farming is Rs 100 per acre as component 'A' (cash), Rs 200 as 'B' (kind) and 'C' component is 50 per cent of 'B'. The maximum benefit for 'A' component is Rs 1000 and over all limit for the three components is Rs 4000

Fertilizers are made available to the farmers through the 140 co-operative sale depots spread through the Union Territory of Delhi. During 1968-69, Rs 60.64 lakhs, during 1969-70, Rs 71.99 lakhs and during 1970-71, Rs 58.61 lakhs were advanced to the farmers.

The Indian Agriculture Research Institute has adopted Kanjhawala block for extention work. The various Plan programmes, have emphasised the extension of irrigation the use of fertilisers and improved seeds etc. During the Plan period upto 1968-69 an amount of Rs 2.9 crores was spent on various agricultural programmes in Delhi.*

Co-operative Societies

During the year 1968-69 474 rural cooperative societies were functioning as against 297 during the previous year. Table 23 indicates the loan distribution by cooperative societies.

TABLE 23

Loan distribution by co-operative societies

Year	Membership	Loan advanced (Rs in lakhs)
1963-64	23,12[illegible]	49.[illegible]7
1964-65	25,629	15.9
1965-66	27,111	54.2[illegible]
1966-67	30,210	61.[illegible]
1967-68	31,[illegible]61	67.[illegible]0
1968-69	32,9[illegible]4	64.68

According to the assessment survey, average loan received per cultivator from all sources increased to Rs 709 during 1969-70, as against Rs 244 during 1964-65. Of the total average loan received, Government Cooperative agencies supplied loans to

*Techno Economic Survey of Delhi, N.C.A.E.R., 1973

the extent of 29 per cent as compared with 15 per cent during 1967-68 and 40 per cent during 1968-69 The average amount of loan viz, Rs 275 received per cultivator through these agencies was the highest recorded during the five years As much as 85 per cent of these loans were utilised for agricultural purposes Share of loan for agricultural purposes out of the total credit availed of by the farmers from non-institutional sources increased from 61 per cent in 1964-65 to 71 per cent in 1969-70 The tendency of utilising loans for agricultural purposes is an indicator of the increased interest of cultivator in farming as would be seen from Table 24

TABLE 24

Average amount of loans borrowed per cultivator from different agencies

Agency	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69	1969-70
1 Gov Cooperatives	31 97	110 19	82 28	78 41	153 66	204 75
2 **Others.**						
(a) Agricultural purposes	128 27	105 52	288 24	300 70	164 68	421 03
(b) Non Agricultural purposes	80 47	32 32	137 37	128 45	65 78	82 9
Total (a & b)	208 74	137 84	425 61	429 16	230 46	573 33
Total (all sources).	243 21	248 03	507 89	507 57	384 12	708 71
No of sampled Cultivators	480	477	476	477	476	475

Stabilization Fund

An Agricultural Credit Stabilization Fund was created with the appex bank i e, the Delhi State Cooperative Bank Ltd in 1967-68 A sum of Rs 175 lakhs had been given to the bank till 1969-70 An amount of Rs 1 00 lakhs was given during 1971-72 For the next year 1972-73 a provision of Rs 2 lakhs was suggested

Distribution of Fertilizers

At present the entire distribution of fertilizers is being done through the cooperative agencies in this Territory As regards the margin money to be provided to the Delhi State Cooperative Federation for the distribution of fertilizers, the concerned Central Working Group appointed by the Planning Commission had recommended a provision of Rs 5 lakhs for the Fourth Plan, and a sum of Rs 2 lakhs was proposed during 1972-73

The Territory has a scheme of providing share capital contribution and managerial subsidy to the primary cooperative societies and also one of out-right grant for the creation of special bad debt reserve at the level of primary co-operatives as well as state cooperative banks The outlay of Rs 1 38 lakhs for 1972-73 was proposed to be utilized as shown below

TABLE 25

Outlay for the Co-operative Societies

	(Rs in lakhs)
(a) Share contribution to 10 societies @ Rs 1,000,00 each .	1 00
(b) *Managerial subsidy for*	
(i) 10 Societies selected in 1970-71	0 06
(ii) 10 Societies selected in 1971-72	0 06
(iii) 10 Societies to be selected in 1972-73	0 06
(c) Special bad debt reserve at the rate of 12 per cent on the additional loan to be advanced by the primary societies to the weeker sections of the society	1 15
(d) Special bad debt reserve @ 4 per cent on the additional loan to the Delhi State Cooperative Bank	0 05
TOTAL	1 380

Marginal Farmers And Agricultural Labours Development Programme

The main object of the scheme is to help marginal farmers owning up to 2 5 acres and agricultural labourers by giving them subsidy and providing loans through co-operatives and nationalised banks for the following activities

(i) Installation of new tubewells, pumping sets and wells,

(ii) Purchase of dairy cattle;

(iii) Establishment of Poultry Farms;

(iv) Cutsom Service;

(v) Purchase of storage bins,

(vi) Training of rural artisans and establishment of service centres

(vii) Levelling of Land.

The expenditure on this scheme during 1971-72 was Rs 0 71 lakhs During 1972-73 and 1973-74 the outlay proposed was of the order of Rs 17 10 and Rs 23 50 lakhs respectively

Livestock And Animal Husbandry

Livestock play an important part in the rural economy Although some cattle are still being used as drought animals, the importance of livestock in Delhi lies in providing milk, meat and eggs to the ever increasing urban population and their higher standard of living The census figures indicate in the cattle population both male and female a considerable increase up to 1956 and there is a definite decline thereafter The number of male cattle over three years was only 20 3 thousand during 1972 as compared to 35 0 thousand in 1951 Similarly, female cattle over three years declined to 67 9 thousand from 106 9 thousand in the same period This trend is observed practically in all categories of cattle Further the cultivator is having preference in favour of buffaloes whose milk capacity is far superior to that of the cow This phenomena is very well reflected in an increase in the number of buffaloes in milk which increased from 26 9 thousand in 1951 to 61 7 thousand in 1972 (Appendix XII) It is also interesting to observe that the number of useless buffaloes which did not calve even once was reduced from 3,423 to 951 during the same period

Downward trend in cattle population and a corresponding upward movement in respect of buffaloes is the result of rapid urbanisation and introduction of tractor farming in the rural areas This has resulted in a considerable replacement of bullock-power in the rural areas and consequent reduction in the bullock population

Marginal reduction in the number of cattle is due to the replacement of drought animals It has had a favourable re-percussions on the production capacity of the milch animals in as much

as more food and fodder became available for them The Territory has thus become a nucleus of the best milch cattle in the country and the energies and efforts of the breeders in the area are devoted towards maintenance and production of the best cattle A comparison of the milk yields in Delhi and other States in the country—(Table 26) would show that Delhi tops in India in this respect

TABLE 26

Average annual yield of milk of cows and buffaloes in some of the selected States in India.

(in lbs)

States	Cow	Buffaloe	Goat
Bihar	600	1,362	120
Delhi	1,300	2,031	110
Himachal Pradesh	194	545	180
Madhya Pradesh	145	710	107
Maharashtra	174	751	126
Mysore	193	62	70
Punjab	1,056	1,819	215
Rajasthan	277	633	174
Uttar Pradesh	638	1,490	125
West Bengal	[illegible]	1,376	111
All India average	369	1,077	122

Source—Directorate of Marketing & Inspection, Nagpur

Besides the cattle and buffaloes, there is also a small population of sheep, goats horses, ponnies and camels Just like cattle, the population of sheep and goats, has come down appreciably in recent years

There is no organised sheep or goat farm in the area because both these types of animals need much grazing lands and nomadic life All the sheep and goats available in the Territory have been purchased from Rajasthan or other adjoining States and kept for meat and milk purposes There is hardly any scope for any improvement in respect of these animals.

Poultry is another field where a good deal of progress has been made in the Territory The number of birds have been increasing at a fast rate The total number of birds was only 25 2 thousand during 1951 as against 373 5 thousand during 1972 This is in response to a great demand for eggs and poultry meat due to the increasing urbanisation in the state

Development Of Cattle And Buffaloes

The development of livestock has been the responsibility of the Administration as well as the Delhi Municipal Corporation The main aim of the developmental activities has been to further increase milk production in the already available high quality animals in the Territory The animals of the Territory today form a nucleus herd of the best available cattle in India from where valuable breeding stock is produced and disseminated to other states Further development of such high-yielding stock becomes the specialised job for the Animal Husbandry Department

The Union Territory is in the heart of Haryana breed of cows and Murrah breed of buffaloes and that also of high quality Efforts have been made during the various Plans to further improve the performance of these animals All the developmental activity is under the charge of Animal Husbandry Department which looks after the increased production of livestock products like milk meat, fish and eggs in the Territory It is achieved by maintaining the livestock population into perfect health and by improving their breed on scientific lines The Department executes the above programmes through its three wings namely Cattle Breeding Poultry Farming and Fisheries

With a view to increasing milk production loans are advanced on easy terms and reasonable interest to increase the number of milch cattle To encourage the increased production of eggs and poultry meat, people are given improved breed chicks, balanced poultry feed at cheap rates and veterinary assistance to control poultry diseases Loans are also advanced to encourage poultry production

Supply Of Bulls For Natural Breeding

High quality cow-bulls of Haryana breed and buffalo bulls of Murrah breed are distributed to panchayats from the funds of Delhi Municipal Corporation for natural services The Delhi Municipal Corporation spends a sum of Rs 25,000 annually for the purchase of these animals and about 35 bulls are introduced annually There are about 173 bulls operating in the rural areas of the Union Territory The Indian Council of Agriculture

Research started a key village scheme in Nangloi with an artificial insemination centre in 1954 which was later on transferred to Delhi Administration in 1964 The scheme has had a lean period in the beginning because of the strong religious sentiments of the local cultivators but has gradually become popular Another artificial insemination centre was established at Tis Hazari in the urban area in 1962 during the Third Plan period and is proving quite popular

Two more artificial insemination centres have been established at Najafgarh in 1967 and a special scheme for breeding and improvement of cows especially through artificial insemination was introduced in Shahdara in 1968 Thus by the end of 1968, the Union Territory had four full fledged artificial insemination centres where high pedigreed bulls are maintained at Government cost Cows and buffaloes are inseminated by artificial insemination means through which 1,000 females can be served in a year against 100 through natural service by a single bull The scheme is very popular and the bulls are in much demand A semen bank has also been set up to encourage cross-breeding with Holstain-Fresian Semen produced from Pusa Institute

In the Fourth Plan period this work will be further expanded by introducing four more artificial insemination centres and 33 sub centres which will be enough to provide high class breeding material for all the breedable cattle in Delhi

Milch Cattle Loans

Loans are being advanced to the marginal farmers and landless labourers for the purchase of milch cattle with high yielding strain @Rs 1 000 per person for the purchase of a milch cattle It was proposed to include a provision of Rs 5 5 lakhs for the scheme during 1972-73

Goshala Development

There are five registered *Goshalas* in the Territory A *Go-Sadan* cum-transit camp was set up in 1970-71 to tackle the problem of stray cattle This *Go-Sadan* serves as a transit camp for the old and infirm cattle which are rounded up in the Territory for being sent later to the *Central Go-Sadan* at Gullar Bhoj in Uttar Pradesh

Central Gosadan, Gullarbhoj

The Delhi Administration took over the control of Central Gosadan from Central Government in December, 1969 The

Gosadan is located in Nainital District of Uttar Pradesh and 318 acres of grazing land is available for grazing of *Gosadan* cattle 300-400 cattle remain at *Gosadan* throughout the year Wheat *bhusa* is also fed to the animals in addition to grazing in the jungle A *Charmalya* is also attached with the *Gosadan* where hides and skins are processed and meat and bone meal is also prepared

Cattle Breeding Farm, Satbari

In order to improve the cattle wealth to produce more milk, a Holstein Fresian Cattle Breeding Farm has been established at Satbari in place of *Gosadan* 35 Hiefers and 2 young bulls have been imported from Australia under Colombo Plan in January 1973 The bulls produced at the farm will be utilized at Seman Bank for cross breeding the indigenous cows and female calves when surplus will be sold to bonafide breeders on reasonable rates Thus, it is proposed to double up the milk production of cows through cross breeding The strength of the Farm is proposed to be increased to 500 cattle in course of time

Provision Of Veterinery Aid

Establishment Of Veterinary Hospital.—A provision of veterinary aid in the Union Territory is the joint responsibility of Delhi Municipal Corporation, New Delhi Municipal Committee and the Delhi Administration Veterinary facilities in Delhi during the last decade have been shown in Table 27

TABLE 27

Veterinary facilities in Delhi

Description	1960-61	1970-71	1971-72	1972-73
Government Veterinary Hospital*	16	35	37	37
Dispensaries ** . .	17	12	6	6
Private clinics . .	3	9	12	14
Veterinary Doctors*** .	27	57	57	54

* It includes Delhi Administration, M C D , N D M.C., Military President Body Guard, Delhi Zoo, Animal Friends and S P C A hospitals

** It includes Delhi Administration, M C D and Touring Dispensaries.

*** Veterinary Doctors of Private Clinics are not included.

*Source.—**Delhi Statistical Hand book***, 1973.p. 76, 77.

The Delhi Municipal Corporation maintains the following veterinary hospitals and dispensaries

Veterinary Hospitals	*Outlying Dispensaries*
1 Tis Hazari	1 Karawal Nagar
2 Nangloi	2 Qutabgarh
3 Najafgarh	3 Ghitorni
4 Bijwasan	
5 Alipur	
6 Narela	
7 T[illegible]	
8 Mehrauli	
9 Shahdara	
10 Bawana	
11 Dhansa	
12 Badli	
13 Palam	
14 Pehladpur	
15 Badarpur	
16 Jharoda Kalan	
17 Daulatpur	

The New Delhi Municipal Committee maintains one veterinary hospital now located at Moti Bagh This hospital is provided with all the modern facilities of a diagnostic laboratory and x-ray etc

The Delhi Administration maintains 15 veterinary hospitals five in the urban areas and ten in the rural areas at the following places

Urban	Rural
Karol Bagh	Malanpur Khadar
Bhogal	Patparganj
Azadpur	Mehpalpur
Jheel Kuranja	Tikri-Kalan
Arjun Nagar (Green Park)	Singhu
	Chiragh Delhi
	Fatehpur Beri
	Kanjhawala
	Kapas Hera
	Burari

Thus, in all there are 35 veterinary hospitals for about 1.5 lakh cattle in the Union Territory. In addition to the above, the Administration is also running five touring dispensaries, one for each block, with full component of staff, equipment and medicines. These provide veterinary aid to sick animals on the spot in villages.

Control Of Epidemics

Cattle population is protected against contageous diseases by timely vaccination against Heamorrhagic Septecaemia and Rinderpest etc. Sick animals are treated through a network of veterinary hospitals. For the diagnosis and control of diseases a diagnostic, laboratory has been set up at veterinary Hospital, Moti Bagh, New Delhi.

The following diseases of cattle which occur in epidemic form in the Union Territory are Rinderpest (cattle plague), Haemorrhagic Septecaemia, and Foot and mouth disease.

Rinderpest or cattle plague is the most fatal of all epidemics of cattle and causes mortality up to 80 per cent. Intensive vaccination against this disease has been performed on mass scale in the entire Union Territory and the disease has been completely eradicated. No outbreak of this disease has occured since the last five years. This disease spreads through migratory cattle and in order to check its spread into the Union Territory check posts have been established in each of the six inter-state routes where incoming and out-going cattle are vaccinated day and night. Haemorrhagic Septicaemia is another fatal disease of cattle but occurs seasonally and only in low-lying areas. The disease has a tendency to occur early during monsoons. There is swelling in the neck and about 80 per cent of the animal which are infected die. The disease is also in complete control as prophylactic vaccination is carried out in all areas endemic to disease during summer prior to the monsoon regularly. The vaccines for prophylactic vaccination for all the epidemics are supplied free to public

from the Delhi Administration and the services rendered are also free

Foot and mouth disease is a virus infection and spreads very fast but does not cause death Whenever outbreak occurs, intensive curative measures are taken and its incidence is limited Protective vaccination against this disease has been developed

Cattle Fairs And Shows

Cattle fairs and cattle shows provide incentives and healthy competition to cultivators and goes a long way in improving the cattle wealth Delhi Municipal Corporation holds cattle fair annually at Nangloi and Najafgarh The cattle shows are held at the time of *Gopashtmi* at various *Gaushalas* and on this occasion prizes are given to all animals

Piggery

The pigs are generally kept by Harijan in the villages but now a few pig farms have also come up with improved varieties of pigs like white Yorkhires The demand of bacon and pork in Delhi is high and is generally met with from the adjoining states For improvement of local breed pigs, boars of improved varieties had been purchased and issued free to the breeders A piggery unit for breeding of boars locally also existed at the Government Poultry Farm Some loans had also been given to Harijans for opening of pig cooperative societies About 20-25 boars were issued annually under the above scheme. Since the last few years, the piggery is showing a decline because of the difficulty of space and outdoor browsing facilities for the pigs due to urbanisation Consequently the organised piggeries have gradually migrated to the adjoining States and the pig population declined from 25 000 in 1956 to 12,631 in 1961

Poultry

There is a great demand for eggs and poultry in the Union Territory and is continuouly growing with the expansion and growth of the city The present requirement of poultry in Delhi is about seven lakh table eggs a day during winter and about four lakhs eggs in summer The Union Territory has a population of 1 75 lakhs birds which supply about one lakh eggs a day There are 300 organised large poultry farms having 7000 to 8000 birds each, while there are innumerable household unit's of backyard poultry The ancillary industries of poultry like poultry feed manufacturing, manufacture of poultry equipment and commercial hatcheries have also sprung up.

Following schemes are in progress in order to expand poultry to the maximum in Delhi

1 Expansion and establishment of Government Poultry Farm,

2. Loan to private poultry breeders for establishing poultry farms,

3 Manufacture and supply of poultry feed;

4 Marketing of poultry produce,

5 Disease control operations

Expansion Of Government Poultry Farm

The nucleus of development of poultry in the Union Territory of Delhi is the Government Poultry Farm This farm was started in 1943 by the Army and was taken over by the Delhi Administration in 1946 Since then it has been improved and expanded It has 34 acres of land, 32 brooder houses, three chick rearing sheds and 46 modern poultry houses, incubator rooms and class rooms

The incubation is done in electrically-run incubators and the farms has a capacity of incubating 45,000 eggs at a time In the beginning White Leg Horn, Rhode Island Red, New Hampshire, Light Sussex and White Cornish breeds of poultry were maintained Later on high laying strains of White Leg Horn and Austrolops were obtained from Australia At present all other breeds except the above two have been eliminated because of the demand of high quality laying birds

For the last ten years unsexed chicks were distributed to the breeders at the rate of rupee one per chick Since the last three years arrangements for supplying sexed chicks have been made and the chicks are now distributed at the rate of @30 p per male and Rs 2 50 p per female chick of day old age About one lakh chicks are distributed to breeders annually from this farm The strength of layers at the farm was raised to 5,000 during the Third Plan The farm is proposed to be shifted to a new site at Mehrauli-Badarpur Road where 50 acres of land has been acquired Further expansion has, therefore, been kept in abeyance till the construction of new premises The demand of chicks is so heavy that to meet the requirement of expansion, it is proposed to raise the poultry farm to 10,000 layers The supply of three

lakh chicks will be met from the hatcheries set up by the internationally famous poultry organisations like Arbor Acor, Unichix, Hy Line etc The total demand for day old chicks in Delhi is about four lakhs

The research programme of family selection for evolving birds of high capacity has also been taken up at the farm In addition to the above the farm has produced about 2 5 lakh eggs for table purposes in 1968

A large number of poultry farms are also springing up in the private sector specially under applied nutrition programme A Poultry Co-operative Estate at Uiwa is a pioneer in this direction It is an ambitious programme of keeping 24 000 layers in 24 individual sheds owned by 24 members to make it a cooperative estate with certain common facilities and with assistance from the U N I C E F in the form of equipment The Estate has made a beginning with 4 000 birds and three poultry sheds The U N I C E F has donated equipment worth Rs 60 000 and the Estate will donate 480 eggs daily for free feeding of nursing mother and children under the applied nutrition programme

Loan To Private Poultry Breeders

The poultry breeders are being given loan for establishing large and small farms in the rural areas A sum of Rs 1 5 lakhs was given on this account in the Third Plan period During the Fourth Plan a loan of Rs 17 lakhs is to be distributed, of which a sum of Rs five lakhs will be made available from the departmental funds and the remaining from institutions like banks, refinancing Corporation etc These loans are distributed through the block agencies and mostly utilised for the construction of poultry sheds and purchase of birds Loans are provided to poultry breeders up to Rs 5 000 each to enable them to purchase chicks of good quality, balanced poultry feeds, construction of poultry sheds and the purchase of equipment etc

Manufacture And Supply Of Poultry Feed

The initial breakthrough in poultry which was witnessed in the years 1959-62 got a set back in 1963—only due to the acute feed problem Most of the farms became bankrupt and were wound up Since 1965, poultry is developing into a flourishing industry mainly because of the availability of good and cheap poultry feed

The World Food Programme is also contributing 400 tonnes of maize annually, the Delhi Administration has given a loan of Rs two lakhs and a share capital of Rs two lakhs to the Delhi Consumers' Cooperative Wholesale Stores for setting up poultry feed plant The plant is now producing from eight to ten tonnes poultry feed daily under the guidance of the Delhi Administration In addition to the above, some more firms have also taken up the poultry feed manufacture

Marketing Of Poultry Produce

In order to improve the marketing of poultry and also to hold the price line, the Delhi Consumers' Wholesale Co-operative Stores has been entrusted with the scheme of marketing of poultry produce in Delhi A loan of Rs one lakh has been advanced by the Delhi Administration for purchase of equipment for cooling and refrigeration for keeping eggs and poultry meat This scheme is linked with poultry feed scheme and about 3,000 to 4,000 eggs are being collected and sold daily by the Wholesale Consumers' Stores through various agencies In the Fourth Plan there is a provision for a further loan of Rs one lakh to the Wholesale Consumers' Cooperative Stores so as to increase its marketing capacity

Disease Control Operations

The most fatal disease of poultry are Ranikhet, Fowl Pox, Tick fever and Coccidiosis in chicks Many farms have been wound up due to epidemics and this has been the biggest hazard in this industry

The Ranikhet disease is now fully under control The vaccine is now available in large quantities and 12 poultry attendants have been posted in the rural and urban areas They conduct vaccination against Ranikhet as well as Fowl Pox free of cost in the rural areas In the urban area however, cost of vaccine and some service charges are realised Similarly to combat Coccidiosis, effective chemotherapy is now available and supplied with reliable drugs in the market

With the introduction of hybrid birds from foreign countries new diseases have also been imported like the chronic respiratory disease The disease is not very fatal but is highly damaging to the industry, as the birds stop laying for a very long period Similarly some other infections are also being noticed. A provision

has thereafter been made in the Fourth Plan for establishing a laboratory for poultry disease diagnosis and control at a cost of Rs. 1 75 lakhs

Dairying

The Union Territory of Delhi being primarily an urban area, the production of milk plays an important role in the consumption habits of the people Since the existing production levels in the Territory are not sufficient, large quantities are being imported from as distant areas as the State of Gujarat To meet the every day increasing requirements of the population the Delhi Milk Scheme has been set up in the public sector Another small dairy—Edward Keventer (Successors) (Priv) Ltd, is also operating in the private sector which meets the requirement of selected persons for milk and milk products The information which relates to the years 1960-61 and 1965-66 and 1971-72 (Table 28) indicates that the total production of milk in Delhi has increased from about 14,000 tonnes during 1960-61 to 17,000 tonnes in 1971-72

TABLE 28

Estimated production of milk and milk products in Delhi

(Thousand tonnes)

	1960-61	1965-66	1971-72
Total milk produced .	13 66	14 18	17 24
Cow milk	2 88	2 32	2 32
Buffalo milk . . .	10 73	11 81	15 11
Goat milk .	0 051	0 38	0 031
Milk available for direct consumption	11 79	12 24	14 97
Milk used for ghee and butter .	1 87	1 94	2 5
Ghee and butter produced .	0 11	0 11	0 14

Source *Delhi Statistical Handbook*, 1973

Delhi Milk Scheme

Delhi Milk Scheme was started on 1st November, 1959 The broad aim of the project was a reorganisation of milk trade in the city with a view to assuring a remunerative market to the

rural milk producers on the one hand and supply of good wholesome milk and milk products at reasonable prices to the consumers on the other During its existence of over 13 years it has been providing its services to the city at a steadily expanding rate and is by now covering about 40 per cent of the city's milk requirements

The scheme was established with the aid of Government of New Zealand at £ 8 lakh under the Colombo Plan for the purchase of machinery and equipment The Second Five Year Plan made a provision of Rs. 32 8 million for the scheme In addition, equipment worth £ 13250 has also been received from the Government of New Zealand

Procurement Of Milk

The Delhi Milk Scheme procures its raw buffalo milk principally from the states of Uttar Pradesh and Haryana through a net work of chilling centres Cow milk is procured from Bikaner in Rajasthan The milk is collected at the chilling centres and chilled immediately and then transported to the Central Dairy located in West Patel Nagar where it is pasteurised and bottled.

The dairy is laid on a 35 acre plot and is equipped with large modern dairy plant for receipt processing and bottling of three lakh litres of milk per day with scope for expansion up to 4 35 lakhs litres per day The dairy is equipped with five bottling lines with a capacity of 16 thousand bottles per hour each, with ancillary equipment including bottle washing machines, milk storage tanks, milk pasteurisers and cold storage plants etc The Central Dairy of the Scheme is also equipped for the manufacture of various milk products including ghee table butter, roller dried milk powder, sterilised flavoured milk and ice-cream The capacity of the butter and ghee sections has been expanded from two tonnes per day to four tonnes per day and 3 2 tonnes per day to eight tonnes per day respectively The scheme has set up 20 milk collection and chilling centres in neighbouring districts of Uttar Pradesh and Haryana It has a fleet of 17 road milk tankers for transport of milk from the chilling centres to the central dairy Milk after procession is distributed in the Scheme's own 81 insulated milk vans from over 1018 depots set up at the end of September, 1971. in various parts of the city.

In order to ensure that milk supply to Delhi Milk Scheme is not adulterated, the price of buffalo milk paid is related to the fat and S N F (solids not fat) content of the milk and is fixed for

a basic fat content of 6 5% and 9% S.N F A premium is given for fat content above 6 5% and S N F content of 9% and similarly a penalty is charged if the fat content goes below 6.5% and S N F below 9% but not less than 5 6% fat and 8 5% S N F Standards for cow milk have been fixed at 4% fat and 8.5% S N F.

On the recommendations of an expert team, the procurement area of the Delhi Milk Scheme has been extended to Alwar and Bharatpur in Rajasthan, and proposed to be extended to Mathura District in Uttar Pradesh

Four intensive cattle development programmes have been sanctioned for the milk-shed of the Delhi Milk Scheme in district Meerut (U P) Gurgaon and Karnal (Haryana) and district Bikaner (Rajasthan) for augmenting the milk supplied to the Delhi Milk Scheme

The daily distribution of milk by the Delhi Milk Scheme during 1972 was 287 thousand litres and for this purpose, about five lakh milk bottles are filled and distributed every day to about more than 2 5 lakhs token holders through 1045 milk depots which have been located in the various colonies of Delhi and New Delhi

Till 5th May, 1965, the Delhi Milk Scheme was distributing three type of milk viz, buffalo milk, cow milk and toned milk The minimum fat content of buffalo milk, as required by law, is 6%. With effect from 10th June 1965, the supply of buffalo milk has been discontinued and in its place standardised milk conforming 5% fat has been introduced The fat content of the standardised milk was further reduced to 4 5% with effect from 10 10 1971 The Delhi Milk Scheme has introduced a new type of milk called double tonned milk with 1 5% fat content from 1st June 1965 with the assistance of World Food Programme, who contributed 850 tonnes of skimmed milk powder as aid in this connection This is meant exclusively for the low income group population of Delhi This milk powder has been fully utilised Further, an agreement has been finalised with the World Food Programme to provide for 1167 9 tonnes of milk powder during the next three years for preparation of double toned as well as toned milk Double toned milk has been introduced in the first instance in Jhuggi-Jhonpri colonies of Delhi with effect from 1st June, 1965 and in 1971 about 13,000 litres of double toned milk was being distributed daily

Quality Control Of Delhi Milk Scheme Products

Delhi Milk Scheme manufactures and issues for sale 4 categories of milk. All these types of milk are pasteurised, tested at Delhi Milk Scheme Quality Control Laboratory and then filled in bottles The raw milk purchased at chilling centres is strictly checked for its chemical and bacteriological qualities in quality control laboratories provided at all the centres Only milk conforming to prescribed standards is accepted The raw milk is then chilled and transported through tankers to the Central Dairy where it is again tested for its chemical and bacteriological qualities immediately after arrival. The samples of milk are again drawn from tanks and tested for their quality, the milk is processed and issued only after it has been declared fit by the quality control laboratory

Expansion Programme Of The D.M.S.

The present Central Dairy has really been equipped to handle about 2 55 lakhs litres of milk daily However, improvised arrangements have been made to increase the working handling capacity to about 3 lakh litres daily

Proposals have been finalised for the expansion of Delhi Milk Scheme to more or less cover the milk requirements of the entire city during the next 3 years It was planned to expand the handling capacity of the Scheme to 7,75,000 liters of milk per day in the next 3 years

The handling capacity of the Central Dairy Plant of the D M S is proposed to be expanded as per Table 28A

It is also proposed to establish a second Dairy Plant at Delhi with handling capacity of about 4 lakh liters per day through bulk containers. A suitable site across Yamuna river (Patparganj) for the second dairy has already been selected

Fisheries

Delhi is criss-crossed by irrigation canals bringing from the Yamuna to the agricultural land, village tanks and ponds. The scope for the expansion of fisheries in the Union Territory is accordingly restricted to .

(a) Riverine tract consisting of a stretch of about 35 kilometres along river Yamuna, besides 40 kilometres of its flooded channels and portions of Agra, Yamuna and Hindon canals traversing a length of 9 5, 12 and 9 5 kilometres respectively in the Union Territory;

TABLE 28-A

Sl No.	Commodity	Present Capacity	Expanded capacity	
1	Liquid Milk	About 3 lakhs litres per day	(i) Milk in bottles	3,50,000 litres per day
			(ii) Milk in bulk containers	25,000 litres per day
			(iii) Milk for spray drying	60,000 litres per day
			Total	4,35,000 litres per day.
2	Butter	2 tonnes per day		4 tonnes per day
3	Spray-dried Milk Powder			5 tonnes per day
4	Ghee	3 tonnes per day		8 tonnes per day
5	Casein			4000 Kg per day
6	Roller-dried SMP	1 2 tonnes per day		3 tonnes per day
7.	Ice-Cream	4430 Litres per day (2 shifts)		4430 Litres per day

(b) Impounded waters consisting of ponds, tanks and *jheels*, which according to a conservative estimate, cover an area of about 14,300 acre-feets in the State

There is thus hardly 106 kilometres of river and canal area and another 1,200 hectares of *jheel* area where fisheries can be developed. A good deal of progress has, however, been made in the block level area from about a meagre 9 3 hectares during 1951-52 to over 52 hectares during 1968-69 as is shown below

Table 29

Fisheries Developments To Delhi

Year	Block level (hectares)	River & canals in kilometres	Jheel fishries (hectares)	Revenue from river and caners fisheries (thousand rupees)
1	2	3	4	5
1951-52	9 31	106		33 4
1960-61	39 05	106		63 4
1961-62	39 05	106		52 9*
1962-63	39 46	106		56 6*
1963-64	41 68	106	3,000	56 4*
1964-65	43 71	106	3,000	68 3*
1965-66	48 56	06	3,000	98 2
1966-67	18 56	106	3,000	92 5
1967-68	50 59	106	3,000	88 0
1968-69	52 61	106	3,000	120 3
1969-70	52 61	106	3,000	132 4
1970-71	52 61	106	3,000	124 0

* The information is incomplete as some of the records were under investigation

N B Figures regarding the revenue collected by the Block level Pisciculturist are not available

When Delhi State was created in the year 1912, fishing was practised only in the river Yamuna. It was not prohibited by any rules and regulations as the Indian Fisheries Act of 1897 was

not in operation in the State Fishing was, therefore, indiscriminate and there was no conservation method for its preservation. The conservation system was originally introduced under the post-war reconstruction programme but latter it was integrated with the "Grow More Food Campaign" As a measure of conservation and development of fish resources ,rules have been framed under the Punjab Fisheries Act of 1914 and Indian Fisheries Act of 1897 for preventing destructive practices unscruplous poaching and enforcing close season for fishing Under the rules, fishing in any of the public waters in the Union Territory of Delhi is prohibited except under a licence Water resources have been classified into different categories depending upon the water area and the type of angling permitted. A water stretch of about six kilometres in Okhla area has been reserved for amateur angling only

The Fisheries Department started functioning as early as 1947 and as a part of the programmes initiated under the "Grow More Food Campaign", its activities were primarily confined to the measures for regulated and judicious exploitation of fish With the beginning of the programme of planned development the scope was extended to the cultivation of fish in village ponds and tanks thereby providing financial resources for the common benefit of the community in general and fishing community in particular The programme in the subsequent plans envisaged exploitation of reclaimed area and improvement of ponds for fish culture A sum of Rs 28 lakhs was proposed to be spent during 1972-73 on the expansion of experimental fish seed farms and it was proposed to bring an additional water area of ten hectares for the production of fish fingerlings There has already been a huge expansion in the distribution of fish seed which is expected to be about five lakhs during the year 1971-72 All these efforts have resulted in raising the production of fish to an expected level of 200 tonnes during 1971-72 The department produced 50,000 fingerlings during 1970-71 and performed solvage operations in 250 acres during the above period The target for 1972-73 was 220 tonnes This is however hardly enough to meet about 20 per cent of the requirements of the Union Territory. the balance of 700 tonnes of so being imported from the adjoining States of Haryana, Punjab and Rajasthan and as far as from Gujarat and Bombay A list of the local species of fish is given in Appendix XIV.

The developmental schemes that are at present in operation in the Union Territory of Delhi are·

(i) Head-quarter establishment;

(ii) Inland fisheries pilot project;

(iii) Intensification of fisheries development in rural areas,

(iv) Experimental fish seed farm; and

(v) Applied nutrition programme

With the consideration of the declining area available for fisheries due to fast urbanisation of the Union Territory on the one hand and food requirements of the population on the other, the fishing industry can play a vital role in the Territory's economy Two important schemes aimed at exploiting the limited resources are intensification of fisheries development in the rural area and expansion of experimental fish seed farms Fisheries department has been considered as a development department and not a revenue earning Department Its basic objectives is to look into the socio-economic uplift of the fishermen who are the most backward

For increasing fish production, the adjoining rivers are conserved for the production of more fish Village tanks etc, are also stocked with fingerlings to produce fish in waste water Under the intensification of fisheries scheme a survey of the water area is being conducted to ascertain the physical, chemical and biological characteristics of water at various places in the rural areas Guidance is also being imparted to the villagers in the matter of improved fish culture practices which should be adopted in the rural areas on the basis of the findings of the survey *Jheel* fisheries are also being developed to the extent possible The progress under this sector, has, however, been extremely slow as only 7 2 per cent of the Fourth Plan outlay of Rs 13 lakhs was likely to be utilised by the end of 1971-72 It was proposed to accelerate the progress under this sector in the next two years

Fishing Communities

The fishermen engaged in this profession in the Union Territory of Delhi usually belong to the neighbouring States and migrate to this area in the peak seasons

Fishing Methods

Various types of fishing gears are used for fishing in river, reservoir and tanks but irrespective of river, reservoir or ponds, there is not much differentiation in the utility of these gears The common kinds of nets used are cast net dragnets of various sizes and meshes and Rod and line (for angling) Besides '*Ghog*' and 'shooting' nets are used for the collection of 'fishfry' and 'fingerlings'.

Fisheries Marketing

The Delhi fish market is one of the important fish markets in the northern India

The fish market gets yearly over 700 tones of fish during the Season from the neighbouring States of Haryana, Rajasthan and Punjab and as far as from Gujarat and Bombay, Delhi gets both marine and inland fishes The total production of the fishes was 1 84 tonnes during 1969-70 worth Rs 5 5 lakhs and 186 and 190 tonnes in 1970-71 and 1971-72 respectively

Fisheries Cooperatives

Two fisheries cooperative societies were registered with the Cooperative Department, having 37 members on its roll, in 1971 The Department of Fisheries help the members in issuing the fishing licences and other fisheries assistance

Famines

According to Delhi District Gazetteer of 1912, the history of famine in Delhi goes back to the time of Muhammed Tughluq whose savage extravagence brought on the famine of 1344 A D, wherein it is said the men ate each other

During the Mughal period, parts of northern India, particularly, the neighbourhood of Delhi, were affected by a severe scarcity in 1655-56 As related by the historian, Abdul Qadir Badaoni, 'men are their own kind and the appearance of the famished sufferers was so hideous that one could scarcely look upon them" Shahjahan saw two years of drought in 1629 and 1630 and Aurangzeb's reign had the famine of 1661 There was a famine in 1739 under Mohammad Shah shortly after the invasion of Nadir Shah and another in 1770 In 1783-84 came the terrible 'Chalisa' famine

There were famines in 1803-4, 1813-14 and 1819 In 1825-26, it is said, there was a great drought in Delhi and out of revenue demand of Rs 28 7 lakhs, the balances were Rs 10 6 lakhs A whole year's revenue was remitted in the northern division of the Territory Famine again occured in 1833-34 while in 1837-38, 'bread riots' came into fashion and unlimited relief was ordered for those who would work The famine ended with the rains in February, 1838

The famine of 1860-61 was a severe one Gratuitous relief was given on a very large scale all over the District. Famine again occured in 1868-70 and 1872-73 due to the failure of rains Again in 1896-97, there was considerable distress due to the failure of the monsoons and the subsequent winter rains Both the *Kharif* and *Rabi* crops were thus lost

The relief measures included suspension of land revenue, advances for digging wells, purchase of seeds and cattle and provision of work at ordinary rates of wages Kitchens were also opened for providing food The suspension of revenue in Delhi Tehsil was of the order of 58 per cent of the annual demand whereas in Ballabhgarh Tahsil it was 83 per cent

During the years 1907-8 and 1909-10 also there was liberal suspension of revenue to the extent of Rs 165 thousand after a bad harvest No information is available regarding the famine after these years

Floods

The position regarding floods in the areas covered by the Union Territory of Delhi has changed to some extent during the last half a century or so when the District Gazetteer was written in 1912 The position at that time was that flood occurred in the low lying *Khadar* when river Yamuna rose Standing crops were however seldom damaged because the river was fairly regular in its habits In other parts of the Union Territory, minor swamping occurred where there were depressions which had not been efficiently drained

Now that large areas have been built which have greatly increased the co-efficient of run-off of these areas and have also interfered to some extent with the natural drainage system, some main drains of the area have also been got siled up for want of proper maintenance and their carrying capacities have been reduced

Average annual rainfall of Delhi is not very high, being only about 2 6 inches But occasionally heavy precipitation takes place and it causes flooding of the low lying and inadequately drained areas An all-time record of rainfall was established on the 20th and 21st July, 1958, when more than 10 5 inches of rain fell in 24 hours touching a maximum intensity of 2 8 inches in an hour. This caused flooding of large areas in the capital causing damage to roads and buildings and paralysing communication In 1964,

Delhi again experienced serious drainage congestion on account of heavy local rain-fall that combined with the inflow of flood waters of the river Sahibi across the western boundary of the Territory.

Floods coming through the river Yamuna submerge such low lying areas along the river that are not yet protected by bunds High floods in the river also produce back-flow of the storm water drains which causes submergence of low lying areas in the catchment zones of those drains The floods of 1924 caused heavy damage to the Tajewala Headworks on the river Yamuna north of Delhi and the area of Shahdara in Delhi Territory was under four to five ft of water The Delhi-Shahdara railway line was damaged and remained closed to traffic for a month After this there were not many high floods till 1947 In 1955 the river Yamuna again rose to a high level (R L 675 ft at the railway bridge) and flooded many low lying areas in the Territory Shahdara was again badly affected and there was considerable dislocation of traffic

Topographically, the Delhi Territory consists mostly of a flat country However, a rocky Ridge starting from near Wazirabad runs in a southern direction to join the hilly tracts in the north of Gurgaon District of Haryana The lie of the Ridge drain into the river Yamuna through Barah Pulah Nala The Najafgarh Drain receives water from some areas of Haryana through the Najafgarh *jheel* and its two major tributories called Mangeshpur Drain, rising in Haryana and Nagloi Drain rising within the Delhi Territory

The Shahdara area of Delhi territory lies across the river Yamuna and most of it is low, being many feet below the high flood level of the river A detailed Hydrological study of the Yamuna has revealed that the Shahdara area can be drained into the river by gravition flow only for 31 days in the year The problem of flooding in this area is aggravated by the ingress of water from the north so that large areas remain water-logged for a long period in the year

A number of bunds *e g* Shahdara Marginal Bunds, Shahalam Bund, Moghul Bund Alipur Bund and Dhansa Bund have been provided to protect the low lying areas in the Territory from floods

In view of the havoc caused by the floods due to the heavy rainfall on the 20th and 21st July, 1958 a High Powered Committee, known as Reddy Committee was appointed for planning

measures against floods and similar calamities in Delhi. The Committee recommended the improvement of flood protection bunds and raising of bunds up-stream of the barrages across river Yamuna. It also recommended the shifting of villages between the river and the bunds to the land away from of the bund Provision of bunds on either side of Barah Pulah Nala between railway track and Ring Road was also suggested It was considered necessary to deepen and regrade the storm water drains, specially the Najafgarh drain to increase their capacities for carrying flood discharge

In 1964, the Government of India appointed another Committee known as Moti Ram Committee to make a scientific assessment of the problem of floods in Delhi and its neighbouring areas and to suggest a comprehensive scheme of flood control The Committee made several recommendations which included deepning, regrading the remodelling of the storm water drains and provision of side bunds to control the inflow of flood water into Delhi Territory from the adjoining areas It was also observed that during high floods the run-off of some areas used for garbage and refuge dumping, reaches the river Yamuna up-stream of the water-works, intake station and created a health hazard due to heavy pollution of water drawn for water supply to the city The Committee recommended the provision of high bunds around such areas to isolate them

Many of the recommendations made by the two Committees have been implemented The Delhi Administration has created a separate Flood Control Department under a Chief Engineer for an expeditious implementation of these recommedations to achieve the objective of limiting the vagaries of floods in the Territory

The floods have been causing big losses and involving heavy expenditure on flood relief measures The floods in 1964 are estimated to have resulted in a loss of Rs 35 lakhs and Rs 125 Lakhs due to damage to houses and crops respectively and an expenditure of Rs 40 90 lakhs had to be incurred on flood relief measures During 1967 damage was assessed at Rs ten lakhs and an expenditure of Rs 12 lakhs had to be incurred on flood relief measures

The Fourth Plan envisaged new schemes and programmes to protect Union Territory of Delhi from floods with an outlay of Rs 600 lakhs.

The objectives pursued during Fourth Plan period were: (i) completion of the works of flood protection embankments which have to be executed for preventing flooding by the river Yamuna, (ii) increasing the existing drainage capacity to the extent recommended by the Reddy Committee and Moti Ram Committee, (iii) augmenting the capacity of the Najafgarh Drain corresponding to the programme of Delhi's development as contemplated in the Master Plan for Delhi and (iv) solving the problems of land locked drainage in the Shahdara and the area near the Gandhi Samadhi.

During the period the capacity of the Najafgarh Drain has been increased to 3,000 cs The construction of bridges over the drain connecting Palam and Kakraula and two bridges on the Najafgarh Drain near the Punjabi Bagh and Vijay Nagar localities has been completed The work on the scheme of 'Right Marginal Bund' from Wazirabad to Bawana escape has also been completed This Bund will afford protection to 8000 acres of agricultural land The works of providing mechanically operated gates in respect of the drains in urban Delhi outfalling into the river Yamuna, the strengthening of Spurs No 12 and 18 of the 'left Marginal Bund' have been executed The raising of Shahdara Marginal Bund from Railway bridge to Wazirabad barrage has been completed The drainage scheme for Kanjhwala and Alipur Blocks is also complete The Jaoli Escape has since been constructed in Uttar Pradesh area for the prevention of floods in the Shahdara area

APPENDIX I

Land utilisation, Delhi

(In Hectares)

Classification	1950-51*	1955-56	1960-61	1965-66	1968-69	1969-70	1970-71
1. Area according to village papers/professional survey	1,18,012	1,17,952	1,47,952	1,47,952	1,47,952	1,47,952	1,47,612
2. Forests	18	1,415	1,415	1,415	3,111	1,886	1,143
3 Area not available for cultivation .	32,236	34,350	34,196	59,010	12,018	46,163	47,314
(a) Land put to non-agricultural uses		33,279	33,169	27,786	24,367	30,702	34,207
(b) Barren and unculturable land .		1,071	1,027	31,254	17,651	15,161	13,107
4. Other uncultivated land excluding fallow land.	20,310	19,621	18,138	2,749	4,458	4,451	3,602
(a) Permanent pastures and other grazing land		1,863	1,863	356	459	518	402
(b) Land under misc tree crops and grooves not included in net area sown						1	41
(c) Cultivable waste land		11,758	13,275	2,393	3,999	3,932	3,150
5 Fallow land	4,566	1,795	6,497	4,526	21,129	15,466	15,04
6 Net area sown	90,882	87,772	87,406	80,222	77,236	79,986	80,512
7 Area sown more than once .	.	12,898	26,076	19,504	22,781	30,585	36,070
8 Total cropped area . .		1,30,670	1,13,482	99,726	1,00,017	1,10,571	1,16,585

*Relating to the year 1949-50

Source—*Revenue Assistant, Delhi Admn. Delhi*,) *Statistical hand book*, 1973 *Bureau of Economics and Statistics Delhi Administration*, P. 56, 57.

APPENDIX II

Distribution of the sampled cultivators according to the size of holding

Sl No	Size of Holding	Total No of sampled cultivators					Percentage to the total				
		61-65	65-66	66-67	67-68	68-69	61-65	65-66	66-67	67-68	68-69
1	Upto one hectare (0-2.5 acres)	14	61	73	68	70	9.2	12.9	15.3	14.3	14.7
2	1-2 hectares (2.5 to 5.0 acres)	57	72	76	72	69	11.9	15.2	16.0	15.0	14.5
3	2-4 hectares (5.0 to 9.0 acres)	150	160	157	145	140	31.2	33.5	33.0	30.4	29.4
4	4-8 hectares (9.9-19.8 acres)	148	123	125	136	149	30.8	25.8	26.3	28.5	31.3
5	Above 8 hectares (above 19.8 acres)	81	61	45	56	48	16.9	12.8	9.4	11.8	10.1
	Cumulative percentage										
1	Upto one hectare (Very Small)	9	13	15	11	15					.
2	1-2 hectares (Small)	21	28	31	29	29					..
3.	2-4 hectares (medium)	52	61	64	59	59					..
4	4-8 hectares (large)	82	87	90	88	90					..
5	Above 8 hectares (Very large)	100	100	100	100	100					..

APPENDIX III

Percentage area under crops for different holding sizes

Name of the crop	Very small					Small					Medium				
	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69
Total food grain crops*															
(a) Bajra¶	15	12	13	28	2	12	17	17	16	11	18	17	19	19	10
(b) Maize		2	1	2	1	1	—	3	3	1	4	2	3	3	2
(c) Wheat	22	25	30	26	58	23	28	29	30	52	37	26	28	29	54
(d) Gram .	14	12	6	10	1	5	7	8	7	1	13	8	10	11	2
(e) Other food grain crops*	28	25	32	21	15	15	22	34	38	27	6	33	26	31	21
Vegetable and other crops	21	24	28	13	23	14	26	9	6	8	22	14	14	7	11
	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

*Rice, Jawar, Barley Millets and Pulses

APPENDIX IV

Cultivation commandable area in Delhi

	Name of Channel	Year 1922		Year 1968	
		Length (Feet)	C C A * (Acres)	Length (Feet)	C C A (Acres)
1	Delhi Tail Distributory	90,500	17,419	90,600	15,932
2.	Nehri Major Distributory 27,000 to Tail 65,000	38,000		38,000	5,922
3	Bawana Distributory 8 2 to Tail	28,095	3,451	23,446	3,386
4	Uchandi Minor of Bawana Distributory	28,300	4,795	28,335	5,278
5	Budanpur Minor of Bawana Distributory	29,085	3,166	30,625	3,035
6	Munuka Minor of Bawana Distributory	40,800	10,862	65,885	18,411
7	Sultanpur Minor of Bawana Distributory	46 835	8 621	46,835	7,829
8	Holambi Minor of Delhi Tail Distributory	3,066	2,115	3,226	2,214
9	Mungeshpur Minor of Delhi Tail Distributory	23,650	6,617	23,650	4,332
10	Shakurpur Minor of Delhi Tail Distributory	5,400	1,671	5,400	871
11	Wazirpur Minor of Delhi Tail Distributory	11,840	1,616	11,810	1,604
12	Alimardan Minor of Delhi Tail Distributory	2,731	817	2,731	758
13	Jaunti Minor of Pai Distributory 33 to Tail	7,895		7,895	4,390
14	Lampur Distributory 7 to Tail	11,500	4,937	12,432	5,993
15	Dhansa Minor		.	33,637	6,823
16	Surakhpur Minor .			18,270	4,415
17	I-L of Surakhpur Minor			Tail O/Ls	1,121
18	2-L of Surakhpur Minor .	.		9,500	1,215
	Total	3,67,697 69 93 Canal miles	66,087 acres (26,744)**	4,62,307 95 34 miles	93,529 acres (37,773)**

*cultivable commandable area

**in hectares

APPENDIX V

Double cropped area in Delhi

(000 hectares)

Year	Net area sown	Net irrigated Area	Per cent net irrigated	Gross cropped Area	Gross irrigated area	Percent gross irrigated	Double cropped Area	Percentage of double cropped area to net sown area
1950-51 . . .	93 9	31 6	33 7	112 5	31 8	28 1	18 6	19 8
1955-56 . .	87 8	31 6	36 0	130 7	31 6	24 2	42 9	48 9
1960-61 . . .	87 4	34 0	38 9	113·5	34 0	30 0	26 1	29 9
1965-66 . . .	80 2	33 6	41 9	99 7	38 5	38 6	19 5	24 3
1966-67 . . .	81 0	36 0	44 4	108 0	43 0	40 6	25·0	30 5
1967-68 . . .	82 2	25 0	30 4	116 4	31 0	26 6	34 2	41 6
1968-69 . . .	77 0	13 0	55 8	100 0	54 0	54 0	23 0	29 9
1969-70 . . .	80 0			110 6	N A	N A	30 6	38 5

APPENDIX VI

Production of selected crops in Delhi

(Metric tons)

Crops	1950-51	1955-56	1960-61	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69	1969-70	1970-71
Wheat	14,224	16,484	28,448*	40,081*	47,000*	73 835*	68,964*	75,417*	87,903
Gram	2,032	3,870	18,228*	5,893*	5,000*	19,139*	2,687*	4,201*	5,685
Barley	1,016	797	631	636	1,192	1,115	2,015*	1,908	1,933
Bajra	9,144	9,663	7,182	8,128*	11,240*	5,765*	13,992*	17,596*	23,153
Maize		456	524	509	834	645	893	862	677
Jowar	4,064	6,470	4,050	3,495	3,296	1,977	2,732	3,121	3,956
Rice	.	203	732	452	1,003	2,777*	3,395*	4,060*	2,359
Potatoes		209	1,375	1,632	1,190	2,404	1,800		2,426
Sugarcane (In terms of *gur*)	2,032	4,837	7,761	2,968	1,625	865	1,231	1,253	1,049
Cotton		72	37	120	109	75	112	107	141

*Based on crop cutting surveys

Source : ***Statistical Handbook***, 1973, p 60-61.

APPENDIX VII

Yield of selected crops in Delhi

(In Kgs.)

Crops	1950-51	1955-56	1960-61	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69	1969-70	1970-71
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Whea	630	579	1,015	1,351	1,435	1,956	1,648	1,685	1,933
Gram	966	1,149	744	510	143	1194	581	732	572
Barley	1,783	1,702	1,379	938	242	182	820	703	943
Bajra	553	443	468	467	663	287	731	848	980
Maize		354	464	497	518	405	632	655	562
Jowar	320	174	331	348	323	168	342	393	379
Rice		623	605	424	699	1,367	1,082	1,461	992
Potatoes		7,000	7,353	7,127	7,169	9,465	7,171		7,374
Sugarcane	1,364	1,695	1,408	499	514	445	527	509	535
Cotton		350	192	367	385	313	358	431	727

APPENDIX VIII

Cropwise consumption of Farm Yard Manure or compost and Chemical Fertilizers

(1969—70)

(Quantity consumed for each crop expressed as percentage of the total)

Crop	F Y M / Compost	Nitro-genous	Phos-phatic
1	2	3	4
1 Bajra .	21	10	5
2 Maize	2	1	*
3 Wheat	41	69	81
4 Gram	1	*	1
5 Vegetables	9	4	2
6 Other foodgrains crops**	10	4	7
7 Other crops . .	13	12	4
Total	100	100	100

*Less than 0 8

**Rice, Jowar, Barley Millets & Pulses

APPENDIX IX

Percentage area benefited by F Y M /Compost and different chemical fertilizers and their average rate of application per hectare in the year 1969-70

(Polled Overall)

F Y M./ Compost or kind of chemical fertilizer	Percentage area benefited under						Average rate of application in kg of F Y M / Compost and kg of nitrients of chemical fertilizers					
	Bajra	Maize	Wheat	Vege-table	Other Grain crops	Other Crops	Bajra	Maize	Wheat	Vege-table	Other Food-gromin crops	Other Crops
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
F Y. M or Compost	35	17	35	47	17	23	26,156	25,747	21,083	40,057	13,863	32,581
Nitrogenous fertilizers .	31	37	70	41	6	36	25 2	32 6	34 0	44 4	20 4	34 9
Phosphatic fertilizers	1	*	5	2		1	32 2	65 9	44 3	42 8	..	43 1

* Observation less than 0 5

APPENDIX X

AGRICULTURAL DISEASES AND PESTS

Traditional Remedies

KHARIF CROPS

(A) *Regular and preventive operations of the control schedules*

June

(1) In preparing the land the stubbles of the previous crops, if any are removed and burnt outside the field or buried in the manure pit till they are decomposed

(2) The grasses grown on bunds of the field are removed and destroyed as above The bunds are scrapped and renovated The raised grounds round the trees near fences and inside the field are dug or hoed as these places harbour the congregation of eggs of grass hoppers and pupae of repidopaterous pests

(3) While sowing the crop about 2% higher seed rate is used so that later on the plants infested by insects are roughed out without decreasing the plant population below the optimum level

(4) Light traps are set up in the field well ahead of the monsoons These act as indicators of the pest activity and on the basis of data obtained with the help of these light traps efforts are made to forecast the optimum timing for the control operations

(5) The crops and its environs are inspected from the very early stages for the appearance of (a) dead hearts due to borers, (b) moths emerging from the pupae which have been under diapause, (c) egg masses laid by these pests, and (d) other external feeders As soon as they are noticed the compaign for nipping the pest in the bud are put into operation

(B) *Operations to be carried out as and when necessary*

July—August

The above nip-in the-bud compaign is repeated often as and when necessary Crops are regularly inspected at as short intervals as practicable but not later than at weekly intervals and control operations are carried out according to the nature of pest infestations

Crops when infested by any of the pests like phadka grass hoppers, red hairs caterpillers and/or ghuihia weavils are dusted with BHC 10% at the rate of 25 Kg per hectare

The Crop are sprayed with 0 05% handance This is timed in accordance with the time of moth emergence at about 700 litres per hectare depending upon the growth of the crops The sprays are repeated several times at least once in every generation of the pest

September—October

Paddy, if infested with gundhy bug, is dusted with BHC 5% at the rate of 10 Kg per acre when infestation increases beyond tolerable limits.

Post Harvest operations

(1) Harvested stock of maize, millets etc are used up as soon as possible and in any case before the end of winter season as the stocks harbour various stages of borer pests

(2) The stubbles of maize and millet crops are dug out and destroyed or used up latest before the end of winter season

RABI CROPS

(A) *Regular and preventive practices of the control schedule*

October—November

(1) Soil is treated with 5% BHC or 5% Eldrin dust at the rate of 25 Kg per hectare The insecticides are applied in furrows at the time of sowing against termites and with surface dusting at the same rate after germination against surface feeders

(B) *Operations to be carried out as and when necessary*

December—February

(1) Wheat crop is dusted with 5% BHC at the rate of 25 Kg per hectare against gughia weevil

(2) Potato crop is treated with 5% DDT dust on 0 25% DDT spray against cutworms

These operations are often repeated depending upon the build up of the pest population

February—March

All crops, if infested with aphids, are sprayed with 0 1% bidance emulsion

April—May

The introduction of new crops in between *Rabi* and *Kharif* is a rather new innovation The some of the above crop protection measures are taken as and when necessary

APPENDIX XI

Use of agricultural implements in Delhi [based on livestock Census]

Description	(Number)	
	1966	1972
Ploughs		
Wooden	17,660	13,616
Iron	2,125	2,665
Improved harrows & cultivators	1,376	1,499
Improved seed drills	1,208	3,977
Improved threshers	240	848
Rotary chaff cutters	13,213	974
Sprayers and dusters	52	1,099
Carts	8,459	5,671
Sugarcane crushers		
Worked by power	40	368
Worked by bullocks	127	224
Oil engines with pumps for irrigation purpose	134	1,159
Electric pumps for irrigation purpose	633	3,264
Persian wheels and Rahats	7,852	4,082
Tractors		
Government	7	76
Private	399	1,074
Total tractors	406	1,150
Power tillers	2	39
Ghanis		
Five kgs & more	12	76
Less than five kgs	6	124

Source · Delhi Statistical Handbook, 1973 p. 73-74.

APPENDIX XII

Cattle in Delhi according to Livestock Census

Description	1951	1956	1961	1966	1972
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Cattle—					
Male over three years :					
Used for breeding only.	321	413	354	139	141
Used for breeding and work both.	N C 446*	N C 483*	619	617	31
Used for work only	34,173	34,856	31,532	27,322	19,252
Others			270	133	847
TOTAL	34,940	35,752	32,775	28,211	20,271
Female over 3 years					
Breeding cows—In milk on 15 April	17,721	18,191	19,923	15,832	15,415
Dry cows	10,189	8,863	9,468	7,908	6,812
Not calved even once	3,238	1,854	700	680	579
Used for work only	29	124	75	80	261
Others	414	233	176	35	654
TOTAL	31,591	29,265	30,342	24,535	23,721
Young stock	40,247	55,293	30,861	22,769	23,927
Total cattle	1,06,958	1,20,310	93,978	75,515	67,919
Buffaloes—					
Male over three years					
Used for breeding only	251	291	558	196	227
Used for breeding and work both	N C. 85*	N C 145*	250	592	666
Used for work only	518	589	989	470	192
Others			277	50	432
TOTAL	854	1,025	2,074	1,308	1,517

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Buffaloes— *Females over 3 years*.					
In milk on 15th April	26,908	38,965	41,448	48,449	61,730
Dry . . .	14,219	11,021	12,060	13,405	12,834
Not calved even once	3,423	2,568	1,191	1,541	951
SUB-TOTAL .	13,740	52,554	51,699	63,395	75,515
Used for work only	206	398	497	165	414
Others . .	331	60	893	28	196
TOTAL .	14 277	53,012	56,089	63,588	6,125
Young stock .	11,131	61,192	39,219	38,514	50,563
Total Buffaloes' .	56,565	1,15,229	97,382	1,03,410	1,28,20
Sheep . .	7,029	6,340	9,560	5,006	4,435
Goats . .	29,182	22,036	18,882	14,345	11,918
Horses and Ponies	5,831	7,281	60,4001	5,165	7,744
Pigs . . .	6,553	21,828	12,631	6,053	10,889
Camels . .	902	1,911	1,912	2,212	818
Others . . .	*11,630*	*8,387*	*6,784*	*5,071*	*5,764*
TOTAL LIVE STOCK .	2,24,950	3,06,325	2,47,069	2,16,777	2,37,721
Poultry .	25,219	71,527	62,757	1,37,398	3,03,529

*Bulls and Bullocks over 3 years not in use for breeding or work.

Source *Delhi Statistical Handbook*, 1973

APPENDIX XIII

Activities of Delhi Milk Scheme

Description	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972
Number of milk depots (monthly average)	746	821	876	914	946	954	1,018	1,045
Number of all day milk stalls*	11	11	11	12	13	13	12	11
Number of agencies* . .	10	10	45	73	78	78	.	..
Procurement of milk (daily average).	133	165	162	160	192	175	177	164
Buffalo milk (000' litres).	129	160	155	150	191	191	166	154
Cow milk (000' litres)	3	5	7	10	2	3	11	10
Distribution of milk (daily average) .	155	190	218	222	254	266	270	287
Standard milk (000' litres)	90	125	130	129	189	170	184	192
Cow milk. (000 litres)	2	2	3	5	.		5	6

APPENDIX XIII—*Contd*

Description	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972
Toned milk (000' litres)	56	44	62	68	49	83	68	75
Double toned milk (000' litres)	10	19	24	20	15	12	13	14
Sale of by products (monthly average)								
Butters (Qtls)	215	504	309	110	106	132	81	60
Ghee (Qtls)	198	507	209	212	368	371	388	352
Sterilized flavoured milk (no of bottles)		11,512	44,213	68,669	34,214	3,537	10,545	10,315
Skimmed milk powder (Qtls)	161	228	274	119	139	291	223	197

*Maximum number during the year

Source *Delhi Statistical Handbook*, 1973

APPENDIX XIV

List of local species of fish

Zoological Name		Local Name
Family Cyprinidas		
1 Labeo Rohita	(Hamilton)	Rohu
2 Labeo Galbasu	(,,)	Kalbons
3 Labeo Gonius	(,,)	Kurc-hia
4 Labeo dro	(,,)	Chilwa
5 Labeo Pangusia	(,,)	
6 Cirrhina Mrigala	(,,)	Mrigal Narain
7 Cirrhina Reba	(,,)	Rala, Suni
8 Catla Catla	(,,)	Katla
9 Barbus (Tor) Tor	(,,)	Mahasee, Raja
10. Puntius Sarana	(,,)	Punti
11 Puntius Cochonius	(,,)	Punti
12 Puntius Sophore	(,,)	Bhur, Punti
13 Puntius Ticto	(,,)	Punti
14 Puntius Punjabensis	(Day)	
15 Crossocheilus Latius Punjabensis Mukerji		
16 Garra Gotyle	(Gray)	
17. Ambypharyngodon Mola	(Hamilton)	Miluwa
18 Aspidoparia Morar	(,,)	Morak
19 Barilius Vagra	(,,)	
20 Rohtee Gotio	(,,)	Chanda

Zoological Name		Local Name
Sub-Family Rasborinae		
21 Esonius Danricus	(Hamilton)	Mola
Sub-Family Abramdidinae		
22 Chela Bacaila . . .	(Hamilton)	Chela
23 Laubuca Atpar	(,,)	
Sub-Family Psilorhynchini		
Family Psilorhymbidae of Hora (1925) . .		
24 Psilorhynchus Balifora.	(Hamilton)	
Family Cobitidas		
25 Psilorhynchus Corica	(Hamilton)	
26. Nemachilus Mintanus	(Me Clell)	
27 Nemachilus Zonatus	(,,)	
Sub-Family Botini		
28. Botia Lobachata	(Chaudhuri)	Billi
Family Siluridae		
29 Wallawo Attu	(Block & Schneider)	Malli
30 Ompak Bimaculatus	(Bloch)	Pabda
31 Ailia Coila	(Hamilton)	Basmati
Family Bagridae		
32 Mystys (Osteobaqrus) Seenghala (Sykes) .		Singhiwa
33 Mystus (Mystus) Carasius . . .	(Hamilton)	Teengra
34. Mystus (Mystus) Teengra	(,,)	,,
35 Mystus (Mystus) Acr	(,,)	,,
36 Rita Rita		Rita, Khagga Cheqi

	Zoological Name		Local Name
	Family Schilbedias		
37	Eutropichtys Bacha	(Hamilton)	Bacha
38	Silonia Silondia	(,,)	Siland
39	Clupisoma Garua.	(,,)	Bacha
	Family Saccobranchidae		
40	Heteropneustes Follilis (Bloch)		Singri
	Famly Sisoridae		
41	Bagarius Bagarius	(Hamilton)	Gonch
42	Gagata Cenia	(,,)	
43	Nangra Punctate	(Day)	
44.	Glyptotaorax Lelcbitta	(Hamilton)	
45	Sisor Rhabdophorus	(,,)	
	***Famly** Ophiocephalidas (Ophicaphalidae)*		
46	Channa Punctatus	(Bloch)	Souli
47	Channa Striatus	(,,)	Soula, Souli
48	Channa Marulius	(Hamilton)	Shai
49	Channa Galhua	(,,)	Shouli
	Family Gobndas		
50	Glossogobius Sp.	(Hamilton)	Bhilus
	Family Centropgmidae (Ambassidee)		
51	Ambassis Nama	(Hamilton)	Chanda
52	Ambassis Ranga	(,,)	Chanda

	Zoological Name		Local Name
	Family Anabantidae		
53	Colisa Fasciatus	(Bloch & Schneider)	Kharda
	Family Mugildae		
54	Mugil Corsula	(Hamilton)	Andwari
55.	Mugil Cascasis	(,,)	
	Family Mastacembelidae		
56	Mastacembelus Armatus	(Lacepede)	Bam
57	Bhynchobdella Aculeata	(Bloch)	Giluwa
	Family Notopteridae		
58	Notepterus Chitala	(Hamilton)	Chital, Pari
59	Notopterus Notepterus	(Pallas)	Pholec Mo
	Family Clupeidae		
	Sub-Family Elupini		
60	Gadusia Chapra	(Hamilton)	Chital, Pari
	Family Belonidae (Xeinentodontidae)		
61	Zenentodon Cancila	(Hamilton)	Chaoch-wali
	Family Amphipnoidae		
62.	Amphipnous Luchia	(Hamilton)	Bam

	Zoological Name		Local Name

Imported Varieties

Besides the sixty-two species listed above, the following species of fresh water, estuarine, and marine fishes are imported from outside Delhi and are available in the fish-market

1	Hilsa Hilsa	(Hamilton)	Hish, Hilsa
2	Clarias Batractus . .	(Linnacus)	Maqr
3	Nandus Nandus . .	(Hamilton)	
4	Eleu heronema Tetradectylus . .	(Shaw)	Salmin
5	Pampus Argínteus (Euphrasin) .		Pomfret
6	Somber Microlepidotus Ruppell . .		Mackorel
7	Late's Calcarifer . . .	(Bloch)	Bhotki
8	Cynoqlossus	Spl	Chepti

APPENDIX XV

Agricultural indices of Delhi

(Base Triennium ending 1961-62-100)

Description	1959-60	1960-61	1961-62	1965-66	1968-69	1969-70
Index of area under crops	95.4	99.1	105.5	84	87.6	93.2
Index of net area sown	100.1	100.1	99.8	91.8	88.4	91.6
Index of cropping intensity	95.3	99.1	105.7	91.9	99.1	101.8
Index of cropping pattern	97.5	105.7	96.7	99.8	105.6	107.2
Index of crop yield	82.7	108.5	111.8	111.3	158.4	161.5
Index of productivity per hectare of net area	76.8	113.7	114.4	102.1	165.8	176.4
Index of agricultural production	76.9	113.7	114.2	93.7	146.5	161.5
Harvest (Producers) Price						
(a) Fixed Base	100.00	96.09	99.27	154.42	196.16	192.14
(b) Chain Base	100.00	96.00	103.31	111.20	106.31	97.80

Source: *Bureau of Economics and Statistics, Delhi Administration, Delhi*

CHAPTER V

INDUSTRIES

Old Time Industries

For a long span in the history of India, Delhi has functioned as the seat of Kings and Emperors and as such has remained a centre of attraction for a great variety of crafts and industries. In olden times, when means of communications and transport were rudimentary and involved great risks, the attraction was confined to very specialised and skilled crafts men who found the court and the attending nobility a ready market for articles of luxury and decoration Delhi can thus boast of a rich heritage of a variety of skilled master craftsmen Samples of their superb workmanship can still be seen in Indian and foreign museums and in the architectural remains in and around Delhi Historical records amply testify to the prosperity enjoyed by several industries and crafts under the patronage of powerful rulers and their courts and in response to the high aesthetic tastes cultivated by the citizenry of the capital According to this historical evidence, Muhammad Tughluq in the fourteenth century had employed 500 expert weavers at Delhi to manufacture silk and brocades for the ladies of the court and presentation articles to be given as royal gifts

There is ample evidence in the records relating to the reign of Mughal emperors testifying to the excellence attained by a great number of industries, arts and crafts For example, Abul Fazl, a famous minister of Akbar's court, reports in his *Ain-i-Akbari* that the Mughal rulers maintained skilled workers as a part of their palace establishments Akbar himself was keenly interested in paintings and employed in his palace a staff of artists and encouraged competition among them so that they might attain fame and eminence by their products Fazl also mentions that Akbar personally supervised the production of weapons for his armoury. Notable among the more popular arts and crafts were jewellery, demascene work gold braids, sword belts, engraving of all kinds, sculpture and miniature paintings

The famous French traveller Bernier in the course of his extensive travels during 1656-69 through the Mughal Empire was greatly impressed by the patronage received by the arts and crafts of the day from the rulers Referring to Delhi, he records, "Large halls are seen in many places called Kar Kanayas or workshops for the artisans In one hall, embroiders are busily employed

superintended by a master In another you see the goldsmiths and in a third, painters In the fourth varnishers in lacquer worked, in a fifth joiners, turners tailors and shoe makers, in a sixth manufacturers of silk, brocades and those fine muslins which are made turbans, girdles with golden flowers and drawers worn by females so delicately fine as to wear out in one night"

Later authoritative writings further testify to the fact that Delhi had continued to be one of the principal centres of industry in northern India T N Mukerjee's book *Art Manufacturers of India*, published in 1888, gives a vivid description of the many arts that Delhi has inherited from olden times To cite one such industry from this book we refer to the leather industry which has retained some of its old importance up to the present time About this industry Mukerjee notes "Delhi is one of the principal seats of the manufacture of ladies slippers Connected with gold and silver wire trade is the considerable trade in embroidered shoes for which Delhi has long been celebrated The variety of patterns and shapes is remarkable in country where fantasy runs riot Nothing could be prettier or more dainty than some of the slippers (zanana juties) made for ladies' night wear embroidered with seed pearls usually false, with spangles and every variety of gold and silver thread and inlaid with red, black or green leather in decorative patterns, gilded and silvered leathers are also used Sometimes gold and silver embroidary is worked on cloth over a basis of leather Men's shoes are often no less elaborate In 1864, Delhi exported shoes to the value of four lakhs of rupees" A later account of old time industries of Delhi is given by Rustam J Mehta in his *The Handicrafts and Industrial Arts of India* published in 1960 Mehta says, "Delhi, the capital of India, is famous for its typical Indian style jewellery, silvar smithy and embroidery This is also the place for *Attars* or Indian perfumes, handsome silver vases and bowls and tea sets, ornamental jewel boxes made of brass silk and silk embroidery, fine homespun Indian sandals and fine ivory carvings"

These ancient industries declined in importance with the passage of time particularly after the final fall of the Mughal empire in 1857 The reasons for their decline are obvious, with the firm establishment of the British rule in India and the opening up of the country to foreign, mainly British, manufactures, there set in a phase of decay in which few of these old time industries could survive Bahadur Shah, the last ruler of Delhi, deplored the plight of these industries in one of his proclamations of 1857. He said "Regarding artisans, it is evident that the Europeans by the introduction of English articles into India have thrown the weavers

the cotton dressers, the carpenters, the blacksmiths and the shoe makers etc out of employ, and have engrossed their occupations so that every description of native artisans has been reduced to beggers"

A few of the old time industries have survived as remnants of old glory on account of their highly specialised character requiring high levels of skills passed on in inheritance from generation to generation The relative importance of these once prosperous trades is marginal and their economic viability doubtful. Notable among them are ivory carving, gold and silver jewellery, embroidery and *zardozi*, gold and silver thread and lametta, handloom textiles, and copper and brass wares

Ivory Carving.

This old craft experienced rejuvination around 1875 when a Delhi firm L Fakir Chand Raghunath, brought in some ten families of skilled carvers from Dacca and two families from South India The descendants of these families are still pursuing this trade in Delhi In early years, the production was limited to specific orders received mostly from foreign buyers In the beginning of the present century, there was a shift to production for market Substantial progress was made during the second world war The number of establishments increased between 1939 and 1945 from 10 to 50 while the number of workers had increased from 100 to nearly 300. Skilled workers gravitated to Delhi from Agra, Jaipur and Gwalior An important feature of the industry is its export orientation, in the pre-war years sales within India accounted for only 10% of the total production, the rest being exported, mainly to U S A , England, France and Egypt. The position of the industry has not changed much since the end of the war In 1950-51 there were in all 18 establishments, while in 1968 there were 20 establishments with an annual turnover worth Rs 10 lakhs The industry undertakes ivory work of three types, namely carving, turning and inlaying The variety of their products includes cheap presentation articles and souveniers like necklaces, bangles, plain and ornamented bracelets and broaches, cigar and cigarette holders, salt and pepper shakers, paper knives, toilet sets and jewellery boxes etc , and also costly pieces like models of bullock driven chariots country boats, large-sized elephants, perforated carpets etc One of the most ambitious production of a firm in Delhi was a sofa set, together with a door screen, which took a year and half to design and five years of 20 skilled carvers to complete

Jewellery

This traditional craft had enjoyed increasing fame for its variety, quality and workmanship all through the long period of Delhi's glory under the muslim rulers It has displayed considerable resilience and adaptibility to changing times Its prosperity outlived the Mughal rule by several decades Its decline seems to have set in with the period of the first world war The principal reason was the change in fashion that had occurred under the western influence Traditional ornamental jewellery was progressively replaced by plain, and also by costume jewellery The attitude towards use o fornaments too was changing The process of adaptation, however had begun quite early As Mukerjee recorded in 1888, "there is scarcely anything which is called jewellery that can not be immitated at Delhi and continued passage of tourists has created a demand for several varieties of native work Large quantities of mock jewellery are made at Delhi From one shop the writer purchased 32 necklaces of different patterns, some in beads, others made of seeds and suitable for religious ascetics, others of lac created with yellow foil, with coins, also with a lace hanging to them and others in wood No two were alike and price asked for 32 was two rupees" Its resilience and adaptability has helped the craft to survive up to the present day, though its relative importance in sphere of industries is greatly reduced In 1968 there were 841 establishments making gold and silver jewellery, they employed 1344 persons and their gross turnover was of the order of Rs 46 lakhs

Gold And Silver Thread And Lametta

Delhi has been one of the major centres of this industry As estimated by Sir George Watt in his *Indian Arts at Delhi*, the production capacity of this industry in the beginning of the present century was over 3 lakh miles of gold and silver wires per annum Upto the first world war, silver formed the base metal and part of the production was in form of silver threads with a coating of gold After the war, there was a switchover to imitation lametta with copper as the basic metal This helped the industry to so expand as to make Delhi the largest centre for the

manufacture of imitation lametta in India in early fifties. In the course of the last two decades, the industry has again experienced a declining phase on account of a switchover by an increasing number of establishments to more remunerative manufacture of copper or allumınium wires for use in the production of electric cables

Gold And Silver Embroidery And Zardozi

Sir George Watt has noted the pre-eminent position that Delhi occupied among the centres of embroidery in the beginning of the present century. The Delhi product had, according to him, its distinctive 'dignity of style', as compared to the 'ostentatious grandeur' and 'barbaric simplicity' of the products of Lucknow and Burhampur respectively In the course of the present century, there has been a progressive decrease in the importance of this industry, due to changing fashions and displacement of costly embroidered garments by mill-made plain or printed clothing The popularity of saries and dresses embroidered with *zari* has been progressively reduced even as a ceremonial wear In the result there are only a few establishments specialising in this trade In 1950, there were only 450 men and 150 women engaged in the manufacture of *silma* and *sitara* emboidery Other products of this industry are *kinari gota*, *gokhru* and *kiran* It is further notable that this embroidery production is seasonal in character and there is a tendency on the part of these workers to switchover to other types of embroidery not using gold or silver threads

Handloom Textiles

With the elimination of regal patronage and in the face, first of imported and then of indigenous mill-made textiles, the handloom industry of Delhi has survived by a switchover to products for which it is comparatively better suited The handloom industry has thus increasingly specialised in the production of bed sheets and pillow covers, curtain cloth and a variety of tapestry articles while continuing to cater to the limited demand for handloom *dhoties* saries and clothing Since Independence, handloom industry has received considerable state assistance to enable it not only to survive but also expand There has also been a mar-

ked tendency to resort to power-driven looms In 1950, there were only 103 establishments; their number increased to 726 units in 1968. The total investment of these establishments in 1968 amounted to Rs 58 lakhs, they employed nearly 5000 workers and produced goods worth nearly 150 lakhs

Copper And Brass Utensils

Delhi has all along specialised in the production of copper and brass utensils for household use to the exclusion of artistic or decorative brass and copper wares An estimate for 1886-87 given in the monographs on brass and copper wares in Punjab indicates that there were some 60 establishments employing about 300 workers and producing goods worth around 1.35 lakhs per year The industry had not only survived through the ensuing period but had also expanded for the total number of copper and brass smiths in 1950 was estimated to be 1,800 The latest estimate for 1968 indicates that there were in that year 125 establishments producing utensils and other household metal products with a capital of Rs 70 lakhs, an annual turnover of Rs 152 lakhs and an employment of 1269 persons

Rise Of New Industries

While the old arts and crafts were progressively eliminated, Delhi's relative attraction as a centre of industry had in fact been buttressed by a number of new factors Its importance as a transport node was greatly enhanced by the coming of the railways in the second half of the nineteenth century, in the countrywide system of railways Delhi became the most important junction linking the entire northern India to all important points of external and internal trade In 1912, it once again became the capital reacquiring its old function of dispensing public patronage to industry and trade Independence and the ensuing era of planning have served further to buttress this role, while the partition of the country brought in a virile mercantile community which has utilised the refuge not only to rehabilitate themselves but to play a dominant role in expanding the industrial base of the rapidly expanding metropolis of Delhi This unique combination of fa-

vourable factors has helped Delhi to emerge as multi-functional centre of trade and commerce, industry and services. The industrial growth of Delhi which gathered spectacular tempo after Independence represents a fascinating record of a people's endeavour.

The beginning of this process of industrial growth can be traced to the latter half of the nineteenth century when modern factory industry began to rise from the simmering ashes of the destruction of Delhi's economy wrought by the British through their punitive measures against the 1857 struggle for independence Between 1872 and 1879 three iron foundries and engineering works came up to mark the beginning of iron and steel manufacture which, after a long period of plodding, emerged in the post-Independence era as a major component of Delhi's new industrial structure During 1888-89, foundations of Delhi's textile industry were laid by the installation of two cotton weaving and spinning mills Then in 1907 came the first ice factory, in 1917 the first flour mill, in 1931 the first match factory, in 1932 an oil mill and in 1934 an acid factory The two world wars greatly helped the expansion of industries in Delhi, they not only closed the imports from foreign markets but generated new and varied demands, because Delhi functioned as an important supply base for both civilian and military needs The wars however helped the diversification of industries in Delhi only in a limited way, new lines of producton were taken up but continued support in the ensuing period could not be assured so that much of the expanded production tended to have a temporary character It was after independence that the process of elaborating and diversifying the industrial base of Delhi effectively began It has continued to operate through the ensuing period of planning till today The credit for this vigorous trend goes in a large measure to the refugee entrepreneurship which the partition had brought into Delhi in abundance.

The quantification of the progressive trend of expansion of Delhi's modern industry is possible on the basis of official statistics only from 1923 onwards According to these statistics the number of registered factories and the total number of workers employed in these factories varied over time as shown below

TABLE 1

Number of registered factories and their employment

Year	No of registered factories	No of workers employed
1923	56	9,945
1928	57	10,443
1933	39	11,726
1939	45	17,317
1943	58	28,438
1945	227	37,870
1948	282	38,894
1951	431	40,780
1953	625	35,960
1958	950	51,535
1959	990	54,485
1960	1,044	57,793
1961	1,096	60,317
1962	1,182	62,992
1963	1,250	66,572
1964	1,293	71,089
1965	1,359	74,234
1966	1,403	76 261
1967	1,422	76,178
1968	1,504	76,641
1969	1,552	80,237
1970	1,628	82,849
1971	1,764	87,762

The process of growth has been more or less continuous, it was conspicuously rapid during the second world war and again during the period of planning commencing from 1951 onwards. There was nearly a threefold increase in the number of registered factories during first 18 years of planning and the size of employment nearly doubled during the same period

It must be noted, however that registered factories form but one part of Delhi's industrial base The unregistered component of industrial activity carried on in small scale and cottage industries is sizable This has been a continuing feature of the industrial activity in Delhi Small scale and cottage industries which traditionally catered to the market of final consumer goods have strongly tended in the course of time to switch over to ancillary production for larger industries and assembling establishments and have claimed a sizable share in the new expansion of industrial activity In 1951, these small establishments employed nearly 30,000 persons as compared to over 40,000 workers employed in registered factories In 1965 and 1969 the former category had in fact claimed larger shares in the total industrial employment, in 1965, the small establishments employed around 86,000 workers as against over 74,000 working in registered factories and in 1969 the corresponding figures were 113,000 and 80,000 respectively. The share of the small and cottage sector in aggregate industrial employment thus improved from around 43 per cent in 1951 to nearly 59 per cent in 1969

It is evident that the growth of industries in Delhi has vastly diversified the output, the range of products has greatly expanded and the quality of product has progressively improved This is reflected in the latest statistics provided by the Census of industrial units in the Union Territory of Delhi which was conducted by the Delhi Administration's Directorate of Industries in 1969 This Census collected information about the name and address of the unit items of manufacture, year of establishment, whether it is registered with the Director of Industries or the Chief Inspector of Factories whether using power, nature of ownership, total investment investment in plant and machinery, value of products, employment as well as exports affected by it According to this Census, there were 25,232 industrial units working in the Union Territory of Delhi Detailed data about their working in 1968 were collected for 23,496 of these units Analysis of these data provide a valuable assessment of the nature and importance of Delhi's industrial base The main results of this census are compiled in the following Table

TABLE 2

Census of Industrial units in the Union Territory of Delhi 1969*

Industry	Units	Employment	Investment	Production
	No	No of persons	Rs lakhs	Rs lakhs
Food, except beverages	2,067	13,736	1,424	8,606
Beverages	25	1,169	184	297
Tobacco	17	176	6	29
Textiles	2,100	35,069	2,751	4,250
Footwear and wearing apparel etc	2,211	7,514	181	565
Wood and cork, except furniture	1,037	3,[illegible]00	74	197
Furniture	541	3,125	85	262
Paper and paper product	417	1,735	64	151
Printing, publishing etc	1,357	16,004	1,082	1,301
Leather, except footwear etc	137	835	19	207
Rubber products	439	2,626	121	278
Chemical and chemical products	490	6,032	856	1,686
Petroleum and coal products	15	94	4	18
Non-metallic mineral products	1,679	25,507	437	1,104
Basic metal industries	571	5,384	700	865
Metal products, except machinery and transport equipment	2,269	14,266	738	1,581
Machinery, except electrical machinery	1,581	12,259	930	1,421
Electrical machinery, apparatus, appliances etc	1,738	13,862	1,009	2,160
Transport equipment	2,[illegible]30	17,984	1,711	1,813
Miscellaneous	2,145	10,315	189	1,070
Personal services	527	1,919	68	115
TOTAL	23,496	192,711	12,933	27,976

*Small scale and large scale sector according to major groups.

Predominance of small size units is well indicated in the figures of employment; nearly 5,000 of the units represented only self-employed persons. While their proportion in the total number of units was 21.1 per cent, their share in total employment was only 2 6 per cent The units employing less than ten persons, including the above self-employed persons, accounted for 88 2 per cent of the number of units and 46 7 per cent of total employment At the other end 216, or less than one per cent of the units claimed 37 1 per cent of employment

In terms of investment, the range of variation extended from Rs 2,000/- or less in the case of 5,664, or over 24 per cent of the units, to more than Rs 10 00,000 each in the case of 109 units The share in investment of the former category was only 0 3 per cent, while that of the latter was as high as 56 9 per cent Annual production varied from Rs 2,000 or less for 3,676 or 15 6 per cent of these units to more than Rs 10 00,000 each for 250 of them The latter category contributed 63 4 per cent and the former, 0 1 per cent to the total value of output In order to highlight the share of the small sector, the census separated out 65 of these units, each with an investment of more than Rs 7 5 lakhs in plant and machinery and designated them as forming the large scale sector of Delhi's industrial base So defined, the large scale sector accounted for less than 0 3 per cent of units but 45 5 per cent of investment, 44 4 per cent of production and 23 4 per cent of employment The numerically preponderant small scale sector accounted for 76 6 per cent of employment 55 6 per cent of production and 53 5 per cent of investment It is significant that the contribution of the small scale sector to production is somewhat higher than their share in investment, their employment orientation is reflected in the comparatively much larger share they claimed in total employment

Arranging the 21 categories into which the industries are grouped in the above Table, in the order of importance according to relative size of employment, we have at the top the textile group with 18 2 per cent of total industrial employment accounting 21 3 per cent of total investment and 15 2 per cent of the total value of annual output In the next place we have the group producing non-metallic mineral products followed in turn by metal products, by miscellaneous manufactures and then by transport equipment Together these five major industry groups employ 57.0 per cent of Delhi's industrial force, claim 47 5 per cent of industrial investment and account for 36 2 per cent of annual output In terms of output, food manfacturing industries, exclusive of beverages, occupied the first position with

a share of 30 1 per cent of the aggregate value of annual production Here the next four places in the order of importance are claimed by textiles with 15 2 per cent, electrical goods with 7 7 per cent, transport equipment with 6 5 per cent and chemicals with 6 0 per cent of the value of annual production

The elaboration and diversification of the industries in Delhi is well reflected in the detailed break-up of the manufacturing activity relating especially to the small scale sector While production of traditional items like textiles, articles of food consumption, footwear, pottery, brasswares, ivory goods, etc, has tended to become more and more varied, the addition of newer items has proceeded on a more impressive scale This is particularly true of chemical metallic products, electricals, machinery and transport equipment industries These newer items include a great variety of machine tools electrical and electronic goods, metal products, auto parts, plastic goods and precision measuring instruments Particularly notable has been the role of small scale industries in venturing into newer lines of production, they are now engaged in producing modern sophisticated items like precision instruments, machine tools, automobile parts, automatic toys transformers, tape recorders, transistors, room coolers, air conditioners, refrigerators, electrical gadgets, microscopes, hospital equipment, and also television sets

Latest figures for 1971 indicate that the number of industrial units has risen to 1528 thousand Correspondingly the employment in the units has increased from 1 93 lakhs in 1969 to about 2 26 lakhs in 1971

Power

The industrial progress of Delhi described above rested in no small measure on the considerable achievement of the period in the field of power or electricity generation, Progressive expansion of the supply of power has not only facilitated the establishment of new industrial units but also provided a strong inducement to the existing units to switch over from other fuels like wood coal and oil to electricity More than three fourths of the industrial units using fuel are run on electricity, the remaining are old and usually small scale establishments so that the share of output produced with the help of electricity is larger still

Production of electricity, however, merits detailed treatment for its own sake, it is indeed a basic component of the infrastructure of services on which all the varied aspects of metropolitan life vitally depend Production of electricity began in Delhi in 1905 when the firm of John Fleming and Co obtained the necessary licence under the Indian Electricity Act of 1903 and established

a diesel generating station within the walled city near Lahori Gate The installed capacity of this station was only 3000 kw Upto 1951, the production and distribution of electricity remained more or less continuously in the hands of private organizations, this continuity was breached for short duration first in early 1920's when the Central Public Works Department undertook the responsibility of generating and supplying electricity and again in early 1930's when the New Delhi Municipality assumed a similar responsibility The private organizations that successively plied in the field were, besides the above noted, the Delhi Tramways and Lighting Co, the Delhi Electric Supply and Traction Co Ltd, and the Delhi Central Electric Power Authority Ltd In 1951, the Delhi State Electricity Board was created as a public autonomous authority to take over the electricity establishment from the above D C E P Authority Ltd The Board was merged into the newly formed Municipal Corporation of Delhi in 1958 to form one of the Corporation's undertakings known as Delhi Electric Supply Undertaking (DESU) The undertaking has taken up the entire charge of electricity production, in the matter of distribution, however, it shares the responsibility with two bulk purchasers namely the New Delhi Municipality in respect of New Delhi and the Military Engineering Service in respect of the Delhi Cantonment

With regard to production of electricity, limited expansion of generating capacity was made from time to time till 1951, a steam generating plant was added in 1912 when the capital was shifted to Delhi from Calcutta This was first located in Kingsway Camp area near the Civil Lines where the offices of the Central Government were initially housed When the offices were shifted to the new capital namely New Delhi the power station too was shifted to its present site at Rajghat on the banks of Yamuna in north east of New Delhi The capacity of the power house at Rajghat was expanded in 1939 and again in 1952 In the second five year plan period, on a new site close by in South was chosen for establishment of what is now called the Indraprastha Power Station The progress of electricity generation has been quite rapid during the period of planning The Fourth Plan envisages integration of the Delhi power system into the Northern India grid system which will serve Punjab, Haryana, Delhi and Uttar Pradesh As a part of this integration programme, a powerful power station with an installed capacity of 300 megawatt is being constructed near Badarpur village in the Union Territory of Delhi The expansion of electricity generation in Delhi that has taken place since its inception is indicated by the following figures

TABLE 3

Historical progress in electricity generation in Delhi (in Kilowatt)

Year	Installed capacity	Derated capacity
December, 1905	3,000	2,000
December, 1912	11,000	10,000
December, 1939	27,900	24,000
March, 1951	39,800	35,000
March, 1956	54,500	50,000
March, 1961	78,400	73,000
March, 1966	1,11,600	1,01,000
March, 1967	1,27,600	1,16,000
March, 1968	2,52,600	2,38,000
March, 1969	2,52,600	2,36,000
March, 1970	2,37,400	2,16,000

Apart from the oldest small diesel generating unit at Lahori Gate with a capacity of 3000 kw, the entire production of electricity is of thermal electricity To supplement its own generation, which had remained insufficient to meet the increasing demand inspite of successive expansions of capacity Delhi has been importing power since 1955 on an increasing scale from the Bhakhra-Nangal System of the Punjab The distribution of electricity has accordingly been larger as shown below

TABLE 4

Generation and distribution of electricity (in thousand kilowatt hours)

Year	Local Production	Imported	Total
1950—51	1,58,215		1,58,215
1955—56	2,14,266	34,909	2,49,175
1960—61	3,10,650	1,42,837	4,53,[illegible]87
1965—66	3,94,482	3,36,161	7,30,643
1969—70	8,35,517	4,21,783	12,57,300

The overall supply position has improved greatly so that in recent years Delhi has started supplying electricity to adjecent states, especially to Haryana and U P In 1968-69 such sales to other states amounted 108,282 thousand kilowatt hours so that net import amounted 285,957 thousand k w hours The corresponding figure of net import was 311,559 k w hours in 1969-70

There has been a rapid progressive increase in the consumption of electricity since 1951 This is indicated by the number of individual consumers of different categories in the Delhi Municipal Corporation area for selected years of the period as shown in Table 5

The increase in the number of private users of electricity has been quite rapid Even so, it is notable that in 1970 the number of households without electricity connections was evidently much larger than the number of connections, as against the above figure of 3 14 lakh electricity connections, the total number of households can be estimated, on the basis of the census houselisting operation to have been around 7 50 lakhs in 1970

It is possible that in many parts of the city, particularly the densely populated areas of old Delhi, one connection may be serving several households, so that the number of households with electricity can be assumed to the larger Even so, it can be said that a sizable portion of the households do not use electricity

In considering the above table, it is notable that the quantum of electricity used by different categories of consumers is bound to differ greatly among them We therefore further consider the distribution of electricity consumed in the jurisdiction of the Delhi Municipal Corporation according to use to which it is put This is shown in the Table 6 giving data for a selected number of years

While the aggregate consumption of electricity has increased during this period of nearly two decades from 84 to nearly 700 million k w hours, the increase has not been uniformly shared by different categories of users The most outstanding increase has occurred in the domestic use of electricity by households for purposes of lighting, fans etc, the relative share mounting up from only 16 7 per cent in 1952-53 to 30 6 per cent in 1969-70 The position of industries as the most dominant user of electricity remains unchanged, industrial use of power recorded more than a ninefold increase during the period and improved its share in the aggregate consumption from 30 5 per cent in 1952-53 to 37 1 per cent in 1969-70.

TABLE 5

Number of consumers of electricity in the Delhi Municipal Corporation area

Year	Household		Commercial		Industrial		Irrigation	Total
	Fan and Light	Power	Fan and Light	Power	Low Voltage	High Voltage		
1952—53	20,381	207	10,266	405	1,775	5	3	33,042
1955—56	48,202	1,201	17,881	715	2,814	15	3	70,831
1960—61	120,303	13,906	27,156	2,247	5,453	12	7	1,69,114
1965—66	2,29,861	44 059	39,856	7,711	8,038	105	206	3,29,836
1968—69	2,96,111	68,734	52,300	13,270	13,199	151	206	4,43,971
1969—70	3,13,538	74,902	58,053	15,561	15,128	176	208	4,77,566

TABLE 6

Consumption of electric power in Delhi (in thousand kilowatt hours)

Year	Domestic	Commercial	Industrial	Irrigation	Public water works	Street lighting	Traction*	Total
1952—53 .	11,168	13,256	25,816	5,522	23,652	1,260	564	84,248
1955—56 . . .	25,710	21,506	48,867	4,693	29,302	2,578	436	1,33,092
1960—61	74,916	23,682	1,01,143	4,998	43,077	5,924	595	2,54,335
1965—66 . .	1,37,613	73,985	1,65,064	6,913	55,019	11,946	..	4,50,570
1968—69	1,93,751	1,02,992	2,27,077	7,303	77,606	16,336	.	6,25,065
1969—70 . .	2,13,433	1,22,699	2,59,340	7,007	83,153	12,821		6,98,458

* Electricity was consumed by tramways which went out of use in early sixties

The Industrial Sector Of Delhi's Economy

We follow up the historical account of the growth of inc tries in Delhi first by an assessment of the relative importance the industrial sector in Delhi's economy and then by a deta analysis of the industrial structure, individually identifying inc tries in its large, small scale and cottage sectors Relative im tance of the industrial sector is indicated below by the Census c sification of workers according to the field of economy in wl they are working These classifications are available from t the 1961 and 1971 census The two are not, however, stri comparable, they are given below not for an evaluation of trend of change over the decade but as alternative presentat of Delhi's economy valid for the given dates

TABLE 7

Industrial classification of workers census of 1961 *and* 1971

Industrial category	1961 No (—000)	1961 %	1971 No (—000)
Cultivators	55	6.1	32
Agricultural labourers	7	0.8	15
Livestock, forestry, fishing, hunting etc and mining and quarrying	9	1.1	14
Household industry	17	2.0	28
Other manufacturing	170	19.9	264
Construction	35	4.1	65
Trade and commerce	147	17.2	245
Transport, storage & communications	50	5.8	115
Other services	364	42.7	451
Total	854	100.0	1,229

The fact of Delhi's being the capital and therefore of centration of administrative and other services of the central vernment is reflected in the proportion of workers engage other services which was as much as nearly 37 per cent in 1 Industry occupies the next place of importance closely follo by trade and commerce

Alternatively, we may consider the sectoral distribution State income of Delhi These estimates as published by the reau of Economics and Statistics of the Delhi Administratio July 1973 are given below for the years 1960-61, 1965 66, 197 and 1971-72

TABLE 8

State income by industrial origin (at current prices)

(Rupees in Lakhs)

Item	1960—61		1965—66		1970—71		1971—72	
	Amount	Percentage	Amount	Percentage	Amount	Percentage	Amount	Percentage
Agriculture & Animal Husbandry	1,220	6 15	1,767	5 16	3,310	5 90	3,634	5 83
Forestry and Fisheries	3	0 02	5	0 01	7	0 01	9	0 02
Mining and Quarrying	16	0 08	29	0 09	65	0 11	124	0 20
Manufacturing—Regd Sector	1,965	9 91	3,311	10 22	5,202	9 19	5,902	9 47
Manufacturing—Unregd Sector	3,820	19 26	5,182	16 00	8,896	15 72	9,771	15 68
Construction	1,391	7 01	1,987	6 14	2,765	4 88	2,914	4 68
Electricity & Water Supply	197	0 99	523	1 61	1,001	1 77	1,066	1 71
Transport and Communication	1,578	7 95	2,701	8 35	5,050	8 92	5,768	9 26
Trade, Storage, Hotels & Restaurant	2,076	10 47	3,991	12 32	8,663	15 30	9,753	15 65
Banking & Insurance	810	4 23	1,611	4 97	2,877	5 08	3,663	5 88
Real Estate & Ownership of Dwellings	1,524	7 68	2,281	7 05	3,411	6 02	3,528	5 66
Public Administration	3,409	17 19	5,782	17 85	9,513	16 80	9,746	15·64
Other Services	1,798	9 06	3,215	9 93	5,827	10 30	6,426	10 32
Total	19,837	100 00	32,385	100 00	56,617	100 00	62,304	100 00

In this more detailed breakdown of the sources of income, if we take the large and small scale manufacturing together, industry occupies the first position in the order of importance In the second place we have public administration which is followed by trade and storage etc It is notable that the recent trend in the pattern of distribution according to source is indicative of an increase in the relative importance of trade and storage etc at the cost mainly of industries

Comparing the 1960-61 pattern of income distribution with the 1961 census distribution of workers it will be seen that the shares of industrial activity in the former pattern was 29 2 per cent, while in the latter it was 21 9 per cent This is suggestive of the fact that the importance of industrial activity in Delhi is greater as a source of income than as a source of employment Alternatively, it would appear that average annual income of an industrial worker is somewhat higher as compared to the average annual income of the working force taken as a whole

Against this background we will proceed to analyse in detail the industrial base of Delhi's economy In doing so, we will deal separately with mining and quarrying, large scale manufacturing, small scale manufacturing and cottage industries

Mining And Quarrying

As the above noted distribution of State income by source indicates, mining and quarrying activity is of little consequence in the economy of Delhi The greater part of the Delhi Territory is covered by alluvium, an unconsolidated stream-laid deposit made up of sand clay and silt bands with molecular calcareous concretions at places The small hills and ridges which abound in the southern and western parts of the Territory consist of ancient rocks known as Alwar-quartzites of the Delhi system Chief mineral deposits noticed here are (i) Kaolin and China clay found in Kusumpur in the south west of Delhi city and further south in pegmatites veins crossing quartzites (ii) Quartz crystal found in a pegmatite rock at Arangpur, some 13 miles south of the city and (iii) Building stone found in central populated part of the ridge at Moti Bagh Chandrawal Jhandewalan Kala Pahar, and Akbarpur Apart from this, *Kankar* is found in abundance all over the Territory and its red variety called *Bajri* in Mahipalpur, Mehrauli and Tughluqabad in its southern part Of considerable importance is also the commercial exploitation of sands, of the Yamuna sand at Bel Estate in the northern and the

Badarpur sand near Badarpur in the southern part of the Territory.

The mining activity came under the perview of government regulation in 1938 when the Delhi Minor Mineral Rules were issued, fixing royalty and specifying procedure for obtaining mining permits. The actual operation of these rules has remained quite lenient; permits have been quite freely issued to all applicants and the operations of permit holders, as a rule, have remained free from subsequent checks stipulated in the Mineral Rules. No data are available to indicate the course of mining activity in Delhi in the past or its present extent. The 1951 position is indicated by the following figures relating to number of permit holders and their output.

TABLE 9

Number of mining permit holders and their output in 1951

Mineral	Number of permit holders	Output in C ft.
Quartzite stone	139	21,25,200
Kaolin and China clay	12	2,45,000
Kankar	1	2,500
Bajri	9	56,000
Yamuna sand	110	21,37,300
Badarpur sand	22	2,00,000

Industries And Manufactures

Large Scale Industries

There are, as noted earlier, 65 large scale industrial establishments in Delhi According to the 1969 survey of industries their investment, employment and output were in that year as shown below·

TABLE 10

Employmnt, investmnt and production of large scale industries in 1969

Industry group	Number of units	Number of workers	Investment Rs lakh	Production Rs. lakh
Textiles	5	22,137	2,185	2,952
Printing, publishing and paper products	11	5 692	552	556
Food manufacturing industries, except beverages	8	5,308	801	6,282
Transport equipment	9	3 336	931	594
Non-metallic mineral products, except coal and petrolium products	2	2,015	151	265
Chemicals	8	1,915	162	552
Electrical machinery, apparatus appliances etc	1	1,150	337	289
Machinery, except electricals	7	1,145	139	194
Beverages	3	870	155	179
Basic metal industries	3	718	131	301
Basic metal products except machinery and transport equipment	3	362	112	190
Miscellaneous	2	396	51	62
Total	65	45,011	6,0[illegible]3	12,116

In the above Table, the industry groups are arranged in the order of importance according to size of employment Here we have the textile group at the top followed at great distance by the printing, and then by the food manufacturing group These are the only groups with employment exceeding 5,000 workers At the other end we have four groups with less than a thousand workers each If we consider the value of production, the food manufacturing group, at the top of the order of importance enjoys a very substantial lead over the textiles in the second place, the value of annual production of the food group is more than

twice the corresponding value for the textile group In the third place, the value of production of the transport equipment group is around a fifth of the corresponding value for the textile group and at the bottom of the scale, the miscellaneous group recorded an output whose value measured less than one per cent of the value of production for the food manufacturing group

We may now proceed to identify some of the major industrial establishments included above in the large scale sector

Textile—This is one of the oldest of the modern factory industries of Delhi The first cotton textile mill called the Hanuman and Mahadeo Cotton Spinning and Weaving Mills, was set up by an Englishman James Elison in 1888 This was followed in the very next year by the establishment of the Delhi Cloth and General Mills Co Ltd In 1893 came the establishment of the Krishna Mills Co, and in 1903, of the Jumna Mills Co There of these four mills went into liquidation during the 1911-13 financial crisis, only the Delhi Cloth and General Mills survived the crisis to enter the First World War period of industrial boom

After the war an expanding phase began in 1919 when the Krishna Mills reopened under the new ownership of M/s Birla Bros In 1920 a new mill, the Goenka Cotton Spinning and Weaving Mills was established This mill, had to be closed down for a number of years beginning with 1927, in 1943 its ownership passed on to M/s Shadi Ram & Sons, who renamed it as Ajudhia Textile Mills Ltd The Delhi Cloth and General Mills progressively expanded their scale of production by adding mill No II in 1925 and mill No III in 1928 After the second world war they established on a new site in the Najafgarh Industrial area, another more modern and fully equipped mill called the Swatantra Bharat Mills, in 1956 a silk textile mill called the DCM Silk Mills was added by them at this new site

During the planning period beginning with 1951, rapid progress has been made by the textile industry in all possible directions There has been progressive increase in employment and investment, while output has not only increased greatly but has also been diversified; and increasing attention has been paid to developing export market The five textile mills of Delhi. DCM Cotton and Silk, Swatantra Bharat, Ajudhia and Birla Mills, together accounted for an investment of about Rs 22 crores, employed over 22 thousand workers, produced textiles worth nearly Rs 30 crores and exported goods worth Rs 2 8 crores in

the year 1967-68 Together they accounted for over 70 per cent of the textile production of the Delhi Territory

Flour mills—The first flour mill, the Ganesh Flour Mills, was established in 1891, the second, the Delhi Flour Mills, in 1916 and the third, the Crown Flour Mills, in 1918 These three mills entered in 1924 into a pool arrangement whereby the entire production was concentrated in the Ganesh Mills, the other two remaining closed The arrangement was discontinued in 1934 but was revived in 1936 to operate up to 1940 After independently working for a period of years covering the second world war and its aftermath, the Ganesh and the Crown Mills went out of production The Ganesh Flour Mills however, has again gone into operation in November, 1972 under the government control The investments Delhi Flour Mills in 1968 was Rs 33 lakhs, it employed 245 workers and produced goods worth Rs 1 25 crores

Bakery products—There are at present two large scale bakaries in Delhi, of which the Britania Biscuits Co., was established in 1898 and the Modern Bakeries (India) Ltd., was founded as a public sector undertaking in 1968 The former has acquired an all-India reputation, their products being popular almost all over the country. This company has recently shifted from within the city to a new industrial area and has in the process installed a most modern automatic plant In 1968 their production, including biscuits, bread, cakes, pastries etc., was valued at Rs 1 34 crores, their total employment then was 288 persons Modern Bakeries (India) Ltd in the very first year of their operation employed 212 persons and produced bread worth Rs 27 lakhs

Hydrogenated edible oil—The production of hydrogenated edible oils (Vanaspati) started in Delhi in 1930 when the Ganesh Flour Mills installed an imported plant to produce it under the brand named 'First Quality' In 1948, the Delhi Cloth and General Mills entered the business, installing a plant for the production of vanaspati under the brand name 'Rath' in their chemical works in the Najafgarh area The total investment of these two units in 1951 was Rs 25 lakhs and total employment only about 300 By 1968 their employment had increased to 1808 and their production of that year was estimated to be Rs 48 4 crores

Milk and milk products—Edward Keventers Pvt. was founded in 1911 to undertake production and sale of milk and milk products in Delhi All through the subsequent period

they have acted as a major suppliers to the defence services and have progressively expanded their business After independence, they have increasingly supplied to the civilian market. The company, now known as Edward Keventers (Successors) Ltd, produced in 1968 milk and milk products worth Rs 85 lakhs and provided employment to 450 persons The position had, however, remained unsatisfactory for a long time, the main source of milk supply being a scatter of small dairies kept by individual milk sellers throughout the metropolis To improve the situation, the government entered the field in 1959 by introducing the Delhi Milk Scheme. This public sector undertaking collects milk from the surrounding areas, processes and bottles it and sells it all over the metropolis through an extensive network of milk depots It has progressively expanded its bussiness and now produces also ice-cream, butter, ghee and condensed milk. Its investment in 1968 amounted to Rs 3 crores, its employment, to 2,250 persons; and its output, to Rs 9 crores.

Soft drinks—Large scale production of soft drinks began in 1950 when the firm of Pure Drinks (New Delhi) Pvt Ltd was founded to introduce Coca-Cola into the city Then in 1961 followed the establishment of J B Bottling Co, introducing soft drinks called 'J B Rose' and 'Pop-Cola', and in 1967 of the Delhi Bottling Co, for selling 'Gold Spot' and 'Rim Zim' In 1968 the Pure Drinks sold soft drinks worth Rs 2 crores, J B worth Rs 25 lakhs and the Delhi Bottling Co, worth Rs 65 lakhs

Printing and publishing etc—There are eleven large scale printing and publishing establishments in Delhi. Among them, the National Printing Workers, the Hindustan Times Press, the Statesman, the United India Press the Crown Press the Tej Printing Press are connected with the production of daily newspapers and periodicals but they also undertake outside job work The National Printing Works is also known for quality printing on art paper Among the remaining presses the Sindhu Art Press specialises in the printing of packing materials while the National Offset Works undertakes offset printing of books and calenders The aggregate investment of the eleven printing and publishing establishments was Rs 552 lakhs in 1968, their output was valued at Rs 556 lakhs and their total employment was 5 692 persons

Dye stuffs and chemicals—Of the two large scale units in this field, the D C M Chemicals a sister concern of the Delhi Cloth and General Mills, came into being in 1942 and the National Chemical Co., in 1948 The principal product of the former

unit is caustic soda, for the production of which they had assembled an indigenous plant The latter, the National Chemical Co, manufactures dye stuffs, their output was valued at Rs 60 lakh in 1968

Carbonic gas—Production of Carbonic gas is confined in the large scale sector to two units, namely, the Indian Oxygen Co Ltd. founded in 1950 and the Sardar Carbonic Gas Co Ltd, founded in 1959 They produced in 1968 gas worth Rs 40 lakhs and employed 312 persons

Insecticides—The only large scale unit in Delhi is the Hindustan Insecticides Ltd, a public sector undertaking, established in 1954 for the production mainly of DDT Their 1968 output was worth Rs 1 74 crores and their employment in that year was 419 persons

Medicines—Of the two large scale producers of medicines drugs etc, the Hamdard Dawakhana is a very old establishment It produces Unani and Ayurvedic medicines which are sold all over the country Its 1968 production was valued at Rs 2 crores The other unit Ranbaxy Laboratories came into existence in 1952 It produces allopathic medicines Its output in 1968 was worth Rs 74 lakhs

Iron and steel—Delhi's industrialization began with the founding of steel rolling and engineering works in the last quarter of the nineteenth century But its present large scale sector comprises of units which came into existence much later There are only three large scale units The oldest of these the G M S Humic Pvt Ltd was founded in 1930 The other two, M/s Rathi Steel Rolling Mills (Pvt) Ltd and M/s Kumar Bros, Steel and Metal Works, came into existence in 1948 The first of these three units produces tin containers drums and P P caps, the second M S bars, flats, angles etc, and the third, conduit pipes, drums, containers etc Their 1968 output was worth Rs 37 lakhs, Rs 287 lakhs and Rs 6 lakhs respectively

Machinery—Five large scale manufacturing units came up during the period of planning in this field They cater mainly to the home market but have recently started to explore foreign markets, in 1968 machinery products worth Rs 8 lakhs were exported These five firms are listed below :

Name	Year of estab-lishment	Products	1968 output Rs lakhs
Sunder Singh & Sons . .	1954	Cold Storage & Ice plant Machinery	19 7
Prem Engineering Works .	1953	Lathes, Power Presses etc	20 0
Siya Ram Kumar Engineering Works	1960	Tractor Spare Parts .	10 0
Mtal Forging (P) Ltd .	1964	Crank Shafts for Compressores, Oil & Diesel Engines etc	42 0
Parol Por (India) Ltd . .	1966	Oil Filters . . .	8 0

Electrical machinery and products—The oldest unit in the field is the Ganesh Electricals, established in 1891 for producing electric fans, their output in 1968 amounted to Rs 70 lakhs Next to enter this field, after a long period in 1948 was Dalton Cables Co which produces electrical wires and cables and also telephone cables their output was worth Rs 90 lakhs in 1968 Thereafter came the Gautam Electrical Motors (Pvt) Ltd , in 1958 and the Sylvania Laxman (Pvt) Ltd in 1962, the former produced electric motors worth Rs 70 lakhs and the latter, florescent tubes and bulbs worth Rs 86 lakhs in 1968

Automobile and railway parts—The oldest of the five large scale units in this field, the Ashoka Manufacturing Co (Pvt) Ltd was established in 1948 for the manufacture of railway equipment In the same year, M/s Hindustan General Industries came into existence for the manufacture of railway wagons and tanks The output of the former was valued in 1968 at Rs 72 lakhs and of the latter, at Rs 83 lakhs There followed the establishment in 1950 of M/s Rachman Koshaskinn and in 1958 of Murarka Engineering Works (Pvt) Ltd , for the manufacture of automobile parts mainly auto-leaf springs and coil springs, the combined output of these two firms amounted to Rs 155 crores in 1968 The

remaining firm of M/s Marshall Industries came up in 1958 for manufacture of motor cycle and cycle parts, its production was valued at Rs 25 lakhs in 1968

Scientific instruments—There is only one unit in the large scale sector manufacturing precision instruments namely M/s Associated Instruments Manufacturers (Pvt) Ltd, which was established in 1932 It produced compression testing machines and tintometers worth Rs 38 lakhs in 1968

Housing—In view of the growing housing shortage especially in urban areas, the Central Government had set up in 1953 in the public setcor the Hindustan Housing Factory to undertake production of pre-fabricated building materials including beams, concrete sheets, light bricks etc While the anticipated expansion of the factory in response to increasing demand for building materials did not materialise and the factory had remained closed for a number of years in the intervening period, yet it has managed to revive its production and begin also to expand it, its output was valued at Rs 1 80 crores in 1968

Miscellaneous—Notable among the large scale units not covered above are Mahabir Exports and Imports (Pvt) Ltd, Raja Toys and M/s Sharpedge Ltd The first of these firms was established in 1953 it manufactures sewing machines under the brand name of 'Sansar' and their output amounted to Rs 72 lakhs in 1968 The second firm Raja Toys, has played a pioneering role in developing mechanical toys which have also found an export market, their output was worth Rs 24 lakhs in 1968 The remaining Sharpedge Ltd produces safety razor blades under the brand names 'Erasmic' and 'Alert', their 1968 production amounted to Rs 63 lakhs

Small Scale Industries

Delhi has been *par excellence* a centre for small scale manufacturing activity In olden times, manufacturing organised in arts and crafts was by nature small in scale The introduction of modern factory system, beginning in the last quarter of the nineteenth century, has resulted in the cumulation of only 65 large scale units referred to earlier The number of units in the 'small scale sector' is on the other hand over 23,000 This serves to suggest that the growth of manufacturing activity has been, by and large, in the small scale sector The recency of this growth is indicated by the distribution of all industrial units, including the small number of large scale units, according to period of establishment of the unit.

TABLE 10

Industrial units according to the period of establishment

Period	Number of units	% of total
1940 or before	1,629	6·9
1941—46	539	2 3
1947—50	2,098	9 0
1951—55	1,854	7·9
1956—60	4,258	18 1
1961—65	6,054	25 8
1966—68	7,064	30 0
TOTAL	23,496	100·00

More than 90 per cent of the small scale industries have originated in the post war period; indeed the great bulk of them have been established during planning period which began in 1951 Tempo of growth within the planning period has been marked with progressive acceleration The last three years of the period covered by the above Table account for some 30 per cent of these units, while the preceding quinquennium accounted for the establishment of another 25 8 per cent of them Thus more than half of the units surveyed in 1969 had come up after 1960

A cross-classification of these establishments according to period of establishment and the major industrial group to which they belong suggests that the growth during the sixties has led to great diversification of output of especially the small scale sector The groups which have increased their share in the total output substantially are the transport equipment where the sixties recorded more than a two-fold increase in the number of units and electrical machinery apparatus, appliances where three-fourths of the 1969 establishments had come into being after 1960 Same is true also of metal products and machinery.

The small scale sector is represented in all the 21 major industry groups into which Table 2 divided the industries of Delhi

in 1969 The largest number of units 2,266, are found in the group constituted by metal products other than machinery and transport equipment There are 5 other groups claiming more than 2000 units each, these are footwear, miscellaneous products, transport equipment, textiles and food manufacturing units At the other end, we have beverages with 22, tobacco manufacture with 17 and petroleum and coal products with only 15 units

In terms of employment the lead is taken by non-metallic mineral products (other than petroleum and coal products) with a strength of 23 492 workers followed by transport equipment with 14 648 and then by metal products (excluding machinery and transport equipment) with 13,904 workers Among industry groups with much smaller number of workers we have leather and fur products with 835, beverages with 299, tobacco manufacture with 176 and petroleum and coal products with only 94 workers

If we likewise arrange these 21 groups in an order of importance according to value of output in 1968 we find that the first place is claimed here by food manufacturing industries with an output of Rs 2 324 lakhs In the second place, the output of electricals was Rs 1,872 lakhs, followed by metal products with an output of Rs 1,390 lakhs Five other groups had an output of more than 10 crores, these are textiles, machinery, transport equipment, chemicals and miscellaneous manufactures As against this, tobacco manufacture recorded an output of only 29 lakhs and petroleum and coal products of only Rs 18 lakhs

We will now follow up the above general review with specifications of the more important lines of production in the small scale sector included in these 21 groups

Food—Here we have two main lines of production The first is the preservation of fruits and vegetables in form of pickles jams, jellies, sauces etc The older methods of preservation have been increasingly replaced by newer, more modern methods There are 28 small units in this line, in addition, there are many cottage establishments engaged in the preparation of *achars* and *murabbas* Three of the 28 small scale units have also started exporting their products to foreign markets. The 1968 output of these small scale units amounted to Rs 1 17 crores and their total employment was then 405 persons

The second line is the production of vegetable oils undertaken both in small scale and cottage units The main raw materials are mustard and *til* which are imported into the Delhi Territory from other states A part of the edible oils produced here, go to export markets In all there were 108 small scale units in this line in 1968 Their investment was of the order of Rs 2 4 crores; their output of Rs 5.7 crores and their employment 780 workers Ten of these units are registered under the Indian Factories Act, the largest among these are the Delhi Kanodia Oil Company and the Delhi Oil and General Mills

Textile —The lines of production pursued by the small scale units here include (i) webbing of narrow fabrics and lace, (ii) thread ball production; (iii) wool bleaching and dyeing and (iv) hosiery products

(i) *Webbing of fabrics, lace* —The first unit here was started in 1921 for the manufacture of *niwar* There was a great spurt in the production of these goods during the second world war on account of defence demand of tentage cots etc. There are now 50 small scale units producing fine and medium count niwars, wicks for hurricane lanterns and kerosene stoves, and a great variety of cotton, nylon and silk tapes Their 1968 production amounted to Rs 71 lakhs

(ii) *Thread ball production* —This old industry retains its importance in the small scale textile production. The oldest unit was established in 1893. In the course of following period, imported power operated machines were introduced resulting in expansion of production capacity In 1968 there were 93 units, their aggregate investment was Rs. 24 lakhs, their employment, 490 persons, and their output, Rs. 92 lakhs

(iii) *Wood bleaching and dyeing* —This is comparatively a more recent line of production, almost all the present units have come up during the last two decades They process and dye raw wool imported from abroad; the processing is almost exclusively of knitting wool In addition to wool, syntheic threads, mostly nylon, are also used either exclusively or in combination with wool The small units have formed a federation for marketing of their products The federation provides brand names produced by the member units. More popular among these brands are Premier, Universal and Oriental In 1968, the 124 small units in production had an aggregate output worth Rs 3 6 crores and they employed a total of 1322 persons

(iv) *Hosiery*—Hosiery production in the small scale sector began as early as 1919; till 1927 the emphasis was on socks, stockings, mufflers, pullovers etc In 1927, cotton underwears and vests were added During the great depression there was keen competition in the home market from Japanese goods The revival of production came during the Second World War with large orders coming to the market from the defence departments However, yarn shortage restricted the expansion The spurt began during the second five year plan period and has continued till today. Synthetic yarns have been added to the woollen and cotton and potentialities of export are increasingly explored In 1968, the number of hosiery units was 244 In that year their production was Rs 3 crores, export Rs 4 4 lakhs and employment 1 732 persons

Furniture and woodware Traditionally, Delhi has been producing a variety of wooden articles of household use, including wooden boxes with floral designs and often embossed with tin or copper sheets, *takhats* toys and also building coaches, tongas *rehras* etc In time, especially after the first world war, modern office equipment and household furniture items like sofa sets dinning sets cots etc were added The manufacturing of furniture expanded greatly after the second world war and several saw mills came up Wooden packing cases and radio cabinets were added to the list of products and there was a shift also to steel furniture, including official equipment almirahs, filing cabinets, trays, etc The furniture industry has concentrated in three localities of Delhi, Panchkuin Road, Kashmire Gate, and Rani Jhansi Road In 1968 there were 94 saw mills with an investment of Rs 9 lakhs and output of Rs 44 lakhs There were 333 units specialising in wooden containers etc, with an output of Rs 57 lakhs, another group of 544 units with an output of Rs 43 lakhs of wooden doors windows and related building articles, yet another group of 444 units producing a variety of wooden furniture items with an output of Rs 1 73 crores, and some 76 units manufacturing steel furniture, with an output of Rs 82 lakhs In 1968, furniture worth over Rs 2 lakhs was exported from Delhi to foreign countries.

Paper products—Manufacturing of paper products began in 1944 when a local concern began to produce ice cream cartons and hoods from paper After 1947, a Lahore firm shifted to Delhi; it manufactures paper envelopes trays ice cream carton etc There were, in 1968 417 small scale units manufacturing enveops, trays, cartons, plates, napkin, bags, caps, tubes, boxes and

a variety of other fancy items A few of these firms have specialised in cutting and rolling of papers of diverse kinds and in diverse shapes; their 1968 output was worth Rs 1 51 crores and they had exported paper products worth Rs 15 000

Rubber products—Two firm were founded in 1935, one to produce rubber balloons, teats, nipples etc and the other, for retreading and vulcanizing of motor tyres Three units came up during the second world war to undertake production of moulded rubber goods like bottle stoppers rings, washers shoe heels sewing machine rings, bicycle handle grips, brake shoes paddle bars, battery containers etc Subsequently, several new items were added to the list of rubber products, these include a variety of footwear, from both reclaimed rubber and from used items like tyres, toys hose pipes, and several different parts of automobiles, cycles, tricycles and perambulators, including tyres and tubes In 1968 there were in all 221 units manufacturing rubber products, their output was worth Rs 1 91 crores in that year

Chemicals—In 1919 a firm was established on an experimental basis for manufacturing sulphuric acid The experiment was not quite successful on account especially of the competition of imports and the plant had to be closed down in 1924 Subsequently, it was reopened to produce mineral acids, postash and ferriculam, Progress of chemicals in Delhi has been rapid during the period planning In 1968 there were 63 units producing nitric acid, magnasium, sodium, zinc and copper sulphates, zinc and calcium chlorides and alum Their production of that year amounted to Rs 2 36 crores

Soap—The first soap factory was established in 1903 but it was modernized with the installation of a complete plant imported from the U K in 1928 The second factory came into being in 1931 and the third and fourth in 1935 Another large factory was started in 1943 Besides these factory establishments, considerable volume of production is organised as an important cottage industry. The production in Delhi is almost exclusively of laundry or washing soaps In 1968(there were 178 units, with an output of soaps worth Rs 3 48 crores.

Paints and varnish—Production of paints and varnishes developed in the course of the planning period Beginning with simple items in the early fifties, considerable progress has been made in diversifying the output which now includes very sophisticated items The items produced include a variety of varnishes,

dry and oil-based distempers, paste and stiff paints, ready-mix paints, plastic enamels, thinners etc In 1968, there were in all 62 units in this field with an output amounting to Rs 1 78 crores, they exported products worth Rs 17 lakhs

Drugs and pharmaceuticals—Considerable progress has been made in this field during the period of planning The items produced are capsules, ointments, ayurvedic and unani medicines distilled water and a variety of syrups The 46 units in the field in 1968 produced goods worth Rs 4 8 crores and exported goods worth Rs 1 25 lakhs

Cosmetics--This again is a line of production developed after Independence The premier firm in this field, M/s Saheb Singh Manufacturing Co (Pvt) Ltd was established in 1947 There are now in all 75 units in the field They produce hair oils dyes, lotions, creams etc, hair removers, hair fixers, sanitary towels, beauty lotions lipstiks *bindi*, *kajal* and eyeliners, face creams and powders after-shave lotions, nail polish, vaslene etc *dhoop* and *agarbattis* scents and perfumes Their 1968 output aggregated to Rs 1 35 crores

Wax and wax products - The principal item here is candles the first unit to manufacture candles in Delhi was established in 1943 Boot polish creams and metal polish are other important items In 1968 there were 28 units in the field, their production was valued in that year at Rs 42 lakhs

Ceramics —The foundations of the pottery industry in Delhi were laid with the establishment of the Delhi Pottery works in 1914 Then in 1923 came the establishment of the Scindia or Gwalior Pottery Works There was considerable increase in the number of units and expansion and diversification of production during the second world war The items of production now include stoneware and jars, pipes fire bricks, refractories, insulators china clay plates for electrical heaters and stoves, decorative vases, sanitary wares, all kinds of crockery, cement tiles, hume pipes, plaster of paris art wares, marble chips and also glassware including bottles, tumblers, jugs, jars, optical glasses, bangles and beeds etc In 1968, there were 1979 units in this group of which 132 units produced earthen wares, 136 units, bricks and refractories, 68, optical glass, 58, sheet and plate glass, and 37, hume pipes and other cement concrete products The aggregate output of all the units in the field amounted in that year to Rs 9 5 crores, of which nearly six lakhs represented exports

Celluloid and plastics.—The development of these lines of production is entirely a post-independence phenomenon The celluloid products include spectacle frames and fountain pens In 1968, there were 31 units producing spectacle frames, their output amounting to Rs. 23 lakhs while 47 units produced fountain pens worth Rs 36 lakhs In the field of plastics, the progress has been even more spectacular The range of products here include radio cabinets sign boards, umbrella handles, stationery items, insulated electric wires, polythene bags, canes and pipes, buttons, purses and dairy covers, jars buckets and other household utensils, bakelite industrial components, sanitary fittings, surgical items, geometrical instruments, novelties like pen stands, cosmetic cases, key rings watch protectors, sales tokens, toys chappals, safety razor holders and flowers etc There were 500 units in the field in 1968, their output was worth Rs 3 9 crores in that year

Electronics.—Beginning with 1940, there has been a continual expansion of the production of a great variety of electronic goods in Delhi The major item is however the assembly of radio receiving sets, including transistors Other items include amplifiers tape recorders record changers and radiogrames In 1968 there were as many as 802 small scale units in the field Their output was valued at Rs 9 crores and they exported goods worth over Rs 4 lakhs in that year It may be noted also that a number of these small scale units have come together to form a consortium to undertake the assembly of T V sets

Electrical Equipment.—The number of small scale units in this field has progressively increased during the planning period The range of production now includes electrical motors, cables and wires, transformers and voltage stabilisers, household appliances like grinders, toasters kettles, percolators, irons heaters, table lamps, emergency lights, accessories like switch holders, shoes, plugs and also overhead transmission line equipment, monoblock pumping sets, cooling pumps etc It is notable that many small scale units are functioning as ancillary units supplying their intermediate products to large scale manufacturers There were, in 1968, 465 units in the field, their aggregate output was valued at more than Rs 9 crores in that year.

Scientific instruments.—Delhi has, in the course of the last two decades, become an important centre for this new industry By 1969, there had grown up here 45 small scale units producing surgical instruments and several other items of hospital equipment, 21 units producing water, steam, electrical and taxi meters

and 43 units producing a variety of scientific instruments including microscopes, barometers, voltmeters etc Their total production during 1968 was worth Rs 1 12 crores

Sport goods and toys.--Production of sport goods began in Delhi after the partition when displaced persons coming from Sialkot entered the field The development since then has brought into existence 43 small scale establishments which produced in 1968 goods worth Rs 21 lakhs The items of production include footballs basket balls cricket balls, table tennis balls shuttles, pingpong and biliard tables carrom boards hockey sticks, cricket bats, racquettes of different types, and also playground equipment like swings, merry-go-rounds etc There were 184 small scale units in the toys section with an output worth more than Rs. 1 crore in 1968

Transport equipment.—With the rapid increase in vehicular traffic in, around and through Delhi over the last two decades, there has come up a large number of small scale units producing auto-parts and undertaking servicing and repair of all types of automobiles These small workshops or garages are equipped with automobile engineering tools and undertake, besides servicing also engine reconditioning and jobs of turning, moulding, welding, spray painting and battery recharging etc Auto-parts produced by a large number of these units include seal beams, clutch plates, pressure plates, clutch forks, brake linings, fuel injectors, pumps, dynamoes hydraulic and mechanical jacks, pistons, rings, leaf springs, grease guns tyre inflators, oil seals, radiators, gaskets, bushes coupling wipers etc A number of them are acting as ancillary units to motor car manufacturers like Hindustan Motors and Escorts A few of the small scale units are also engaged in production of equipment for the railways, the items produced here include railway wagon accessories, locomotive head light fittings, locomotive gaskets and speedometer cables etc There were as many as 2130 small scale units in this field in 1968, their aggregate output was more than Rs 18 crores in that year

Cycle and cycle parts—In 1938, a small unit was established to manufacture tricycles and perambulators, the second such unit came up in 1940 and seven more were added during 1947-50 Since then the industry has kept on growing in number of units, production capacity and range of items of manufacture In 1968, there were 173 units in the field manufacturing, besides the assembly of complete cycles, battery lamps, carriers and stands, bells handles brakes hubs frames reflectors, grips, rims, mudguards spokes, spanners peddals and seats Their aggregate

output was worth Rs 2 7 crores of which goods worth Rs. 5 lakhs were exported.

Sheet metal products.—This is one of the oldest lines of production which has witnessed remarkable growth and diversification since the Second World War Manufacture of trunks began in the last half of the nineteenth century and of buckets and tubs towards the end of the first world war There was considerable expansion during the second world war in response to orders from the defence departments There has been considerable progress also in modernization of production processess and replacement of labour by machinery There were in 1968 over 2,250 small scale units in this field Their principal items of production were cabinets, safes, locks, cutlery, sanitary fittings, utensils and kitchen equipment, containers, trunks, buckets, hand tools bolts, nuts, stapples, hinges, ammunition boxes, pressure cookers wire netting, handpumps, hurricane lanterns and burners, and also tin toys and brass art wares Their total production was valued at Rs 15 8 crores and they exported goods worth Rs. 27 lakhs in that year

Iron foundries and castings.—Foundry and casting work began in Delhi in connection with the engineering establishments which were established in late 70's of the last century Independently the manufacturing activity in this field began in 1914 when a small scale unit started to produce cast iron pipes Production of conduit pipes came much later in 1940 Four more units were added by 1945 but two of these units had to remain closed during the post-war period on account of acute shortage of iron sheets It is, however, notable that in the early fifties, Delhi accounted for more than a third of the all-India output of cast iron pipes Since then, there has been considerable expansion of production in this field In 1968, there were 571 small scale units, engaged in iron and steel casting, forging, moulding, rolling and other types of foundry work, producing iron and steel structural items and grills, ropes rods, flats bars and wires etc Their production during the year was valued at Rs 8 6 crores, of which goods worth Rs 14 lakhs were exported

General machinery.—As noted earlier, the foundation of the engineering industry of Delhi can be traced to the 70's of the last century The first engineering firm, M/s Madho Ram Budh Singh, subsequently renamed Raj Engineering Works, took up the production of the two-roller iron sugarcane crusher of the design invented and patented in India by an English engineer Delhi Iron

Works and Grand Iron Works founded in 1874 and 1878 respectively followed suit This initial enthusiasm was not sustained and no significant progress in the production of machinery was made till the fifties In 1950-51, there were 135 small scale units producing such items as punching machines, *atta chakkies*, oil seed crushers, shearing machines, hydraulic presses, lathe chucks, tablet making machines, vulcanizers, and tools for carpenters, shoemakers and blacksmiths The progress since then has enabled the small scale units to enter the export market and undertake jobbing work for large scale manufacturers like the Hindustan Machine Tools, and also to diversify their output The newer items include machines used in plastic moulding, pharmaceutical processes, printing and paper conversion, construction, paint and varnish production, ice, ice cream and cold storage industry, wire drawing rubber moulding, welding, rubber retreading, drilling, shaping, milling etc Apart from these Delhi units also produce machinery parts for jute and cotton textile plants, heavy earth moving equipment, industrial sewing machines air conditioners, refrigerators and deep freezers, duplicating machines, and optical machinery There were in all 1 584 small scale units in this field in 1968 their output in that year was valued at Rs 14 crores

Cottage Household Industries

This section of the small scale industry retains its importance not so much in terms of its share in the income generated as for its providing scope for work to those who, by choice or for want of appropriate alternative employment, find it for themselves as self-employed or family workers Their age-old importance decreased progressively through the long period in the face of competition of imports and of modern industry which grew up at home Since independence the Government has introduced a series of measures to review these cottage industries and help them not only to survive but also to modernize themselves in suitable ways so that they attain viability in the changed and changing industrial milieu

In the case of Delhi even new production has tended at times to be organised at least initially in residences or in attached out-houses garages etc for want of space The tempo of industrial activity has progressively increased during the last two decades, it has resulted in a proliferation of industrial units all through the metropolis The continuing mixture of land uses has grown in acuteness in the heart of the old city and has spread to suburbs and the periferal areas The problem of acute intermix of residences, commercial use and industrial activity has arisen in its

most aggravated form causing concern on grounds or public health and has remained intractable in spite of the city planning effort that was launched in early sixties on a very considerable scale. Our present concern is, however, with the nature and scope of industrial activity carried on in this section of the small scale industry.

The surveys of industrial activity conducted so far do not separate cottage or household units from the small scale industries There are indeed conceptual difficulties in doing so and the distinction is not really helpful from the point of view of official policies and programmes An indication of relative importance of cottage industries within the small scale sector is available in the distribution of industrial units according to size of employment

TABLE 11

Industrial units according to size of employment—1968

Size of employment	Number of units	Percentage to number of units	Total employment	Percentage to employment
1	4,966	21.1	4,966	2.6
2— 4	10,817	46.1	29,599	15.4
5— 9	4,935	21.0	32,388	16.8
10—19	1,761	7.5	22,893	11.9
20—49	606	2.6	18,130	9.4
50—99	192	0.8	13,155	6.8
100 or more	216	0.9	71,580	37.1
	23,496	100.0	192,711	100.0

Obviously the bulk of cottage or household units are concentrated in the first two employment size categories On this basis, it will be seen that while the share of these very small units in the aggregate of industrial units is quite large, their importance as

a source of employment is not great, indeed the first two categories together account for only 8 per cent of the industrial working force of Delhi Employment in cottage and household industries must be smaller still

It is also evident that organisation of industrial activity on a cottage or household scale is possible only in cases where the physical capital complement is not bulky and, in any case, handy enough to be located within the small residences of such self-employed workers This is true of several of the traditional crafts and arts which have managed to survive to claim the state assistance during the post-independence period Important among such industries in Delhi are handloom weaving, leather products, embroidery, *zari*, *zardozi*, and jewellery

Handlooms. Following up our earlier reference to this traditional industry we may note that the handloom and *khadi* section of the small scale textile industry in Delhi improved its position during the last two decades with the establishment of All-India Handloom Board and active encouragement and financial assistance rendered to it by the State under the Five Year Plans The number of handloom establishments increased between 1951 and 1968 from 42 to 718 their investment, from Rs 4 2 lakhs to 54 9 lakhs and their employment from only 300 to 4,776 Their 1968 production was valued at Rs 133 5 lakhs The government has encouraged these household units to organize themselves into cooperatives and assist them also in their sale promotion activities by establishing sale pavilions in important shopping areas like the Cannaught Place in New Delhi and also by organising exhibitions

Leather goods. This traditional cottage craft declined in the face of competition of imports and of modern factories of Calcutta and Kanpur The attitude of Delhi shoe makers to stick to traditional types of footwear was also partly responsible for the decline It received stimulus from the second world war demands of the defence establishments and shifted slowly to the production of more modern types of footwear including chappals and sandals and also to other items like suitcases, attache cases, hand bags etc The State has given considerable attention to this industry in their planning programmes In 1968 there were in all 1783 establishments manufacturing footwear; their investment was Rs 54 lakhs, output, Rs 1 8 crores, and employment, 4,331 persons They also exported goods worth Rs 51 lakhs in that year Apart from these, there were 172 cottage units engaged in the processing of sheep casings, tanning, and the manufacture of

other finished leather products, their 1968 production amour to Rs 2 1 crores, of which goods worth Rs 1.7 crores were ported to foreign countries

Embroidery.—This notable old time craft has managed survive in Delhi through sheer force of tradition There has b increasing tendency on the part of these craftsmen to shift fi silver and gold threads and even lametta to silk and nylon ya Embroidery is undertaken on an increasing scale as job w from wholesale dealers or manufacturers of readymade garme In 1968. there were over 400 cottage units in the field; their put was worth Rs. 59 lakhs and the total number of workers 1 724 in that year.

Immitation Jewellery.—This is another old time indu which is in the process of revival due to the switchover in j duction from precious metals to cheaper ones The industry in the hands of Muslim artisans, who outmigrated to Paki at the time of partition Its revival since then is indicated by increase in number of units to 41 in 1968 Their productio that year was worth Rs 8 lakhs, out of which jewellery w Rs 1 lakh was exported to foreign countries The range of tume jewellery they produce from copper, bronze and zinc is extensive

Industrial Potential And Planning

Delhi is at present in the midst of a remarkable phase of dustrial growth Several factors have contributed to bring about Some of them are enduring in character and some i even further gain in importance There is thus a reasonable h that the process of growth will continue over the forseeable fut It must be noted, however, that the Union Territory of D does not possess any natural resource on which industry co be based It is a small territory, with one of the largest of Ind metropolises, recording one of the highest levels of popula density and in dire want of physical area and built up space accommodate with any degree of efficiency the multiple funct that it must perform in the national as well as in the internatic sphere The lack of natural resources and limitation of sp will thus continue to influence the character of its indus growth, the pattern of industrial organization and its product-i

The factors which continue to favour industrial expansio Delhi, are its status and its location, the growth in the size increasing cosmopolitisation of its population, its infrastruct

of services and facilities and the positive role of the official agencies at the central, state and local levels Its status as a capital city is important not so much for the patronage that the State could offer to the arts, crafts and industry as for the consideration of its claim to grow industrially that it may extract on account of its proximity to the planning and decision making organs of a central government that is committed to secure planned development of the national economy The capital is better placed than any other city of India to take advantage of the training, advisory, consultancy, technical and other related services and facilities that are created by the central government for the benefit of existing and new industries Since the growth of industry in the country is taking place under the control and regulation of the State Delhi in itself provides a ready access to the authorities granting and sanctioning financial assistance licences, permits, quotas etc As such, Delhi has also become one of the most important financial centres of northern India

Its location, apart from its status is a positive factor promoting growth of industry Delhi dominates the entire northern India as a transportation nodal point in respect of road, rail and air travel and haulage It is this unique position that has helped to retain its importance as a distributing centre and to develop also into a centre of banking finance and a host of other commercial activities serving the trading community This context justifies the claim of Delhi as the place for setting a dry port When the present proposal to establish the dry port here materialises, it will add not only to its importance as a commercial and trading centre but also to its attractiveness as an industrial hub

Delhi's population of over 40 lakhs represents one of the largest consumer market and acts therefore, as an irresistible force drawing in final consumer goods industries This large community enjoys the highest level of per capita income and also one of the highest levels of literacy and education in the country The composition of the population again is unique, the native *Delhiwalas* form now but a small group and the enterprising Punjabis have increasingly exerted a dominating influence, while the migrants from U P and Rajasthan have provided a large section of the working force What has increasingly given Delhi its cosmopolitan character is the presence of substantial minority groups from all parts of the country as also the presence of an evergrowing international community comprising the diplomatic services missions, trading interests etc The volume and variety of demand for consumption articles exerted by the rapidly growing metropolis have kept on increasing.

An important aspect of population change for the present purpose has been the drastic overhaul of Delhi's population occasioned by the partition in 1947 Overnight the size of population had experienced a tremendous increase and in the process the complexion of the population had changed drastically The new large section of the population represented by the displaced persons had brought in little more than a determination to overcome odds in search for a new life The State had rendered assistance but the skills and the experience they had brought with them helped them to emerge not only as better businessmen but as much better innovative and enterprising entrepreneurs who were content to keep the scale small but keen to keep the turnover large There has thus come into existance in Delhi an enterpreneurship that has stood the test of times

With regard to infrastructure of facilities and services, Delhi has made notable progress in the field of electricity, water supply and also internal transport The problems of shortage of essential services and facilities have remained in view of the rapidity with which population and industrial activity have expanded Even so, industry has enjoyed comparative advantage in the matter of basic needs of power and water, as compared to other claimants in Delhi and as compared to corresponding availabilities in other states Delhi has already embarked upon comprehensive development of its services on the basis of a master plan which has been worked out after taking into consideration its local, regional, national and international character.

The role of the State has been positive from the beginning The Delhi Administration has rendered, as a part of their planning activity, both financial and technical assistance It has offered incentives to industries in the form of concessions in electricity rates, excise duties, sales tax and octroi duties It has facilitated the supply of scarce raw materials and assisted the local industries to speedily obtain the necessary permits, licences, quotas etc It has striven to train and develop skills through vocational institutes and to foster innovations by instituting appropriate reward systems It has helped small scale units to reap benefits of large scales by organizing themselves into federations and consortia It has assisted them in their drives for export promotion. More notable, is, however, the role of the State in orderly development of the industries in the limited space available in the Metropolis Under the Master Plan zoning regulations a number of industrial areas have been developed Further, the State has brought into

existence a number of Industrial Estates The most popularly known among them is the Okhla Industrial Estate which came into being in 1958 Here 110 acre land area there are 189 industrial sheds and sites The Estate provides all the basic amenities including water and electricity The services available here include banking postal service, trade mark registration, railway booking, employment exchange, technical advice and guidance, and labour welfare Another important estate is the upcoming Badli Estate which is designed to facilitate rural industrialization The Administration has in addition helped to organise cooperative industrial estates 16 of such cooperative estates have been registered with the Cooperative Department of the Administration and five of them have already started functioning.

These considerations explain why the industrial growth in Delhi has been of the tempo and character it has assumed in the course of the last over two decades They also provide adequate ground for the hope that the gains in the field will be consolidated and on that basis the process of growth will continue its course into the future This prospect of orderly development is assured for the reason that Delhi has taken the lead in securing comprehensive development of its economy through the instrumentality of State level planning Planning can legitimately take credit for the gains obtained in this field over the first three Five Year periods The direction that the process of industrial growth may take in the future is well reflected in the approach and programmes formulated in the current Fourth Five Year Plan of the Delhi Administration The Plan allocated Rs 577 lakhs to industry in its comprehensive programme of development covering such essential items of infrastructure as transportation and communications power and social services, including health, water supply education and technical training whose expansion is so very vital to the growth of industry

With regard to direct action in the field of industry, the plan enunciated a realistic approach in the light of experience gained hitherto This approach is stated as follows

"(i) As per the policy note given in the Master Plan for Delhi on the provision and location of industries, Delhi is not a suitable place for heavy and large self-contained industries

"(ii) There is a good deal of scope for the promotion of traditional industry viz handloom cloth leather goods, handicrafts, and industries manufacturing engineering goods, sport goods and processed food stuffs in this Territory All these items are foreign exchange earners.

"(iii) With a view to providing gainful employment to the nhabitants of rural areas, it is necessary to give a fillip to the programme of rural industries".

Accordingly, the Plan programmes have given priority to small scale industries laying particular emphasis on potentialities or exports to foreign countries The programmes further give importance to schemes for rural industrialization and for shifting of existing industries from non-conforming to conforming areas as provided in the Delhi Master Plan Of the aggregate plan outlay of Rs 577 lakhs for industry, the small scale industries claimed Rs 396 lakhs, the programme of urban and rural industrial estates Rs 103 lakhs, handloom industries, Rs 61 lakhs, and handicrafts, Rs 17 lakhs. An idea of the nature of this planning effort towards promotion of industries is obtained from the following list of schemes included in the Plan.

Developmental assistance to handloom industry,

Establishment of a weavers' colony,

Block loans to powerlooms,

Block loans to small scale industries,

Loan assistance for shifting industries from non-conforming to conforming areas,

Schemes for export promotion, including establishment of export Promotion Council and a Dry Port,

Rationalisation and modernization schemes for reducing unit costs of production in the small scale sector,

Permanent exhibition and sales depots,

Common service centres separately for sport goods, electronics and leather industries,

Survey, research and training schemes,

Cooperative handicraft sales depot,

Quality control in the household electrical appliances industry,

Establishment of flatted factories for leather industry,

Functional industrial estate for plastic, electronic and electrical goods,

Badli and other industrial estates,

Cooperative industrial estates,

Special assistance to traditional crafts,

Training schemes for traditional craftsmen, and

Special assistance to *khadi* and village industries.

Labour And Employers' Organizations

The trade union activity in Delhi is not limited to industry It encompasses other economic activities including banking and insurance transport and communications, and also public agencies like the central State and local government departments and offices Within industry, it is carried on with vigour only in respect of large scale industries The problem of trade union organisation is not serious in the small scale sector and within this sector it is indeed of quite a different character in respect of cottage and household industries and of all categories of occupations pursued by self-employed persons

In fact the unionization of labour began in Delhi in 1928 with the postal workers, who formed their union in the month of June in that year under the Indian Trade Unions Act of 1926 It was registered under the name of the All-India Postal and Railway Mail Services Union This was soon followed by the registration of the Delhi Cloth Mills Workers Union The progress of the trade union movement remained quite slow to begin with, between 1928 and 1935 only 11 unions were registered The movement displayed considerable momentum early in the Second World war period and has progressed at a rapid rate during the planning period The following table gives an idea of the growth of trade unions over time

TABLE 12

Number of trade unions and their membership

Year	Number of unions	Number of members
1935	16	8,259
1940	28	24,376
1944	33	24,614
1947	50	25,614
1951	126	1,14,129
1955	267	1,81,755
1960	372	2,25,155
1965	450	2,89,800
1967	498	3,15,550
1970	642	3,81,620

The breakdown of the trade unions according to the sphere of economic activity in which they are operative, indicates that the unions in industry proper formed only about 30 per cent of the aggregate number The largest number of unions were operating in the field of commerce, accounting for nearly 35 per cent of the aggregate number of unions Services, including public services, accounted for over one-fifth of the aggregate number.

It is notable that the local trade unions are as a rule either sponsored by, or affiliated to the major central unions operating at the national level like the Indian Trade Union Congress, All-India Trade Union Congress, United Trade Union Congress, Hind Mazdoor Sabha and Bharatiya Mazdoor Sangh It is further notable that there obtains in Delhi, as in most other important centres of industry and commerce, a multiplicity of unions in major industries and also in very large industrial, commercial and services establishments and public sector undertakings This gives rise to acute problems of inter-union rivalries and considerably compromises the effectiveness of the trade union movement

For an idea of the performance of the trade union movement we further refer to the trend of industrial disputes as shown below

TABLE 13

Industrial disputes in Delhi

Year	Total No of disputes	No of workers involved		Total No of mandays lost
		Directly	Indirectly	
1950 .	11	13,084		13,599
1955 . .	73	18,585	63	42,843
1960 .	27	2,029	12	10,538
1965 .	35	18,887	156	1,34,334
1966	77	7,971	269	78,127
1967	57	10,256	21	1,08,876
1968 .	71	22,218	1,571	2,38,343
1969	33	28,665	99	2,70,848
1970 . .	38	21,564	19,133	2,00,149

There has been considerable increase in the impact of industrial disputes on industrial activity during the sixties. 1970 recorded in fact the largest number of workers directly or indirectly involved in the disputes, while 1969 recorded the largest amount of mandays of work lost on account of the disputes.

Employers' Organisations

The Employers' Organisations initially came into being in the decade following the First World War with the primary objective of facilitating settlement of the internal trade disputes and for obtaining concessions from the government After the Second World War the Employers' Organisations started dealing with and advising members on, labour matters and implementation of the labour enactments The growth of the employers' organisation in recent years is shown below

TABLE 14

Number of employers' associations and their membership

Year	Number of associations	Number of members
1961	19	2,198
1965	18	1,773
1966	20	2,947
1967	25	3,681

The more outstanding associations presently functioning in Delhi are the following

United Chamber of Trade Association,

Shahadara Manufacturing Association,

Najafgarh Road Federation,

Okhla Industrial Estate Employers' Association,

All India Manufacturers Organisation, Delhi State,

All India Organisation of Industrial Employers,

Federation of Indian Manufacturers,

All India Instrument Manufacturers and Dealers Association,

Delhi Caterers Association,

Delhi Chamber of Commerce,

Delhi Hindustani Mercantile Association,

Grain Merchants Association,

New Delhi Traders Association,

Kiryana Merchants Association,

Delhi Printers Association,

Federation of Associations of Small Industries of India,

Delhi Factory Owners Federation, and

Shahadara Traders Association

Some of these organisations are of All-India character and some others operate on a regional basis

The organisations of labour and employers have had an opportunity of coming together on various boards and committees set up by the Delhi Administration These include Labour Advisory Board, Implementation and Evaluation Committee, Minimum Wages Board, Minimum Wages Committees, Conciliation Boards, etc. Representatives of both employees and employers sit on these boards and committees to help the framing of relevant policies and to assist in the settlement of industrial disputes.

Welfare Of Industrial Labour

Before the Second World War, the labour welfare activity was confined to the two Cotton Textile Mills; the welfare measures they provided were free medical aid, free education for the workers' children, recreational facilities, canteen and housing facilities Further, the Delhi Cloth and General Mills, Ltd., instituted in 1941 welfare scheme concerning provision of provident fund, gratuity, old age pension, and daughters' marriage allowance benefits for their employees by setting up a separate Trust known as 'Employees Benefit Fund Trust'. The Birla Cotton Mills also maintained a dispensary, a high school and a canteen, besides providing recreational facilities. Some government establishments and semi-government undertakings had, in the post-war period, instituted welfare facilities for their workers on a

modest scale However, except for the enforcement of the provisions of the Factories Act of 1935, Payment of Wages Act of 1936 and Workmen's Compensation Act of 1923, there was no active State intervention in the sphere of labour welfare

Since Independence the attitude of the employers towards undertaking voluntary welfare measures has gradually undergone a change Public-sector undertakings are providing welfare activities on an increasing scale These activities are financed through welfare funds created for the purpose, these funds comprise grants from the employers to the extent of Rs 2/- per worker and from contributions from workers The activities provided are recreational facilities, including staging of plays, dramas, sports etc, library and reading room Only a few progressive employers have set up welfare clubs with suitable grants from time to time The Delhi Municipal Corporation and its undertakings have started a few welfare centres which, apart from other recreational and cultural facilities, provide indoor and outdoor games and also training in handicrafts

The importance of the need and role of labour welfare has been recognised by the Delhi Administration, who entered the field in 1953 by opening a labour welfare centre in the Sabzimandi area Since then nine more centres have been started in various localities where there is concentration of labour Out of these centres, one centre at Karampura is housed in a government building specially constructed for the purpose The other centres are in rented buildings Each one of these centres is under the charge of a Labour Welfare Supervisor The work of these centres is coordinated by a Welfare Officer who works under the over-all administrative control of the Labour Commissioner Each centre has been equipped with a small library, a reading room, indoor games facilities and a wireless set Arrangements for programmes of music and music classes exist in some centres In addition, literacy classes are being conducted and film shows of topical interest are organised These centres also provide facilities for training in crafts to women

Housing

With regard to housing the effort of factory owners and other employers has not been commensurate with the magnitude of the problem A number of employers, including the Delhi Cloth Mills, the Swatantra Bharat Mills, the Birla Mills and the Hindustan Housing Factory, have constructed over 3,000 quarters from their own resources. The management

of the Delhi Transport Undertaking (now DTC), Delhi Electric Supply Undertaking, Hindustan Insecticides, and General Wing of the Delhi Municipal Corporation have constructed about 2,000 quarters, while a few other public sector undertakings have made available to their employees at concessional rates private accommodation hired by them at market rents or have got for them allotment of quarters through the general pool accommodation of the Central Government

In order to alleviate the shortage of housing, the Administration has sponsored construction of quarters for the factory workers under subsidised industrial housing scheme According to this scheme, factory workers whose wages do not exceed Rs 350/- p m, are eligible for quarters An allottee who crosses the wage limit of Rs 350/- can also be permitted to retain the house till he reaches the wage limit of Rs 500/- p m The quarters consist of a living room, a multipurpose room and a bath room, and sanitary arrangements The subsidised charges from the workers are Rs 13/- and Rs 18/- p m, depending upon the size of the quarter Under this scheme, the Delhi Administration has constructed 2,808 houses at Karampura and Kilokari, 880 houses at Shahadara and 1 184 houses at Okhla Additionally, 864 houses are being built under the scheme at Lawrence Road and 696 houses at Shahadara Under the same scheme 446 houses have been built by private employers and 58 by co-operative societies of industrial workers The Delhi Development Authority has also undertaken construction of quarters for the low and middle income group persons, including factory workers

Welfare Measures Inside The Work Place

Welfare measures in the place of work include, *inter alia* promotion of health and safety of workers, maintenance of proper standards of sanitation and cleanliness, healthy atmospheric conditions lighting, over-crowding, drinking water, canteen, first-aid, rest shelter and other facilities for recreation during the rest intervals These provisions are statutorily regulated by the Factories Act Except for the factories located in congested areas, there has been considerable improvement in regard to the maintenance of sanitation and cleanliness, lighting arrangement, provision of rest shelters Snacks at cheaper rates are provided in almost all factories employing more than 250 workers Conditions in this respect are particularly satisfactory in the newly developed industrial areas of Najafgarh Road, Okhla, Shahadara and Lawrence Road

The Workmens' Compensation Act provides for compensation to workers for accidents and occupational diseases arising out and in course of their employment resulting in death, or total or partial disability for a period exceeding three days All fatal accidents are required to be reported to the appropriate authority and in case of non-payment of compensation, the workman, or his heir, can file his claim before the Sub-Judge appointed as Commissioner for the detemination of all such claims In regard to factories covered under the Factories Act, compensation is paid by Employees State Insurance Corporation The number of workers who are eligible to claim compensation for accidents under the scheme is estimated at about 2,50,000 in Delhi

Medical benefits are being provided under the Employees State Insurance Act, 1948 Delhi was the first State where the scheme was introduced as a pilot measure in February, 1952 Both workers and their employers have to contribute to this scheme which is administered by an autonomous organisation The benefits include periodical cash payment in the case of certified sickness, disablement and maternity benefit and free medical treatment to dependent family members In 1971, 19 dispensaries were functioning to cater to the medical needs of the population covered by the scheme They arrange for hospitalisation where necessary, provide ambulance and specialised treatment facilities and also extend medical benefits to cases needing prolonged treatment such as patients suffering from tuberculosis etc The number of insured persons under the scheme was 1,19,000 with the total number of beneficiaries exceeding 4,41,700 in 1971

Retirement benefits in the form of accumulated provident fund and/or gratuity are being provided as a measure of social insurance The schemes of gratuity, however, have been introduced through voluntary agreement between the parties or through awards of the industrial tribunals Ordinarily the benefit of gratuity in addition to provident fund is available only in more prosperous concerns The benefit of provident fund has been available through the Employees Provident Fund Act

which became operative in Delhi from September, 1952 onwards. This Act initially covered engineering and cotton textile units, employing 20 or more workers. It has since been extended to printing and allied establishments, oil industry, newspaper establishments, road motor transport industry, flour mills, hotels and restaurants, petroleum industry, leather industry, and similar other industries The workers have to contribute 8⅓% or in some industries 6¼%, of the wages while matching contribution of equal amount is made by the employer. The scheme is administered by a central board of trustees, a tripartite body, under the advice of a regional committee on matters connected with the working of the scheme At present the Act covers 2,326 establishments, employing 2,11,195 workers

Gratuity rules have been standardised in respect of the minimum conditions for eligibility and the rate of payment on the basis of agreements concluded during the last decade In some concerns, however, gratuity is still paid at the discretion of the employers Regular gratuity benefits are available in the cotton textile mills, petroleum industry, bigger newspaper establishments, public sector undertakings local authorities and some progressive commercial concerns

No comprehensive scheme for unemployment insurance has yet been introduced The question of providing such a scheme has been under active consideration of the government. Usual compensation under the Industrial Disputes Act, is, however, available when a worker is retrenched or laid off

Labour Office

Since 1968, the Delhi Administration Labour Office has been operating to look after the general welfare of industrial labour Concerted efforts are being made for getting the industrial workers a better deal Substantial gains have been secured by industrial workers in regard to wage rates, working conditions and fringe benefits. A large number of disputes have been decided amicably through conciliation machinery and awards of the adjudicators The major gains relate

to liberalisation of casual, earned and sick leave rules, standardisation of festival holidays, introduction of gratuity schemes and extension of the Employees Provident Fund Act, introduction of dearness allowances, often linked to consumer's price level, elimination of contract labour system in some cases and protection against arbitrary fines, discharge and dismissals In a number of cases, the promotion procedures have been improved and standardised

The greatest gain has been in respect of increase in wages This has resulted from the application of the recommendations of the various wage boards and extension of the Minimum Wages Act to a large number of industries. The workers of the dal and flour mills, construction industry, public motor transport, printing presses, engineering industry and cotton textiles, as also the vast body of employees of the shops and commercial establishments, have been brought within the purview of the Minimum Wages Act

CHAPTER VI

BANKING, TRADE AND COMMERCE

A. Banking and Finance

History Of Indigenous Banking In The District

The city of Delhi has a long history as a trading and financial centre. It was probably the most important single financial centre in the whole of India in the Mughal Empire when it was their capital. It is after Aurangzeb that its relative importance tended to decrease on account of the rise of new centres of trade, especially the port towns of Bombay, Calcutta and Madras. Delhi, however continued to occupy a premier position as a financial centre of the entire northern India, including Uttar Pradesh, Punjab, Rajasthan, Jammu and Kashmir. Its importance was greatly enhanced by the shifting of the Capital of British India from Calcutta to Delhi in 1912 and again by the Independence in 1947. All through this historical period, Delhi has financed not only the bulk of buying and selling transactions with the neighbouring *mandis* but also the business between these *mandis inter se* and the movement of produce between mandis and other commercial centres in the country particularly the port towns. This progressive growth of the financial function has led to the development of excellent banking facilities in Delhi with almost all commercial and exchange banks maintaining their offices or branches here. It carries on a flourishing business in demand bills arising out of the movement of goods between the towns of northern India on the one hand and the port towns on the other.

Indigenous Banking

Before the advent of commercial banking undertaken by joint stock companies formed especially for the purpose, the entire financial business was in the hands of indigenous bankers, particularly the *Banias* and *Mahajans* who had developed an efficient system of financing through what are called '*hundis*', which is similar to the system of transfers by cheques and bank drafts.

The business of financing in the rural areas was in the hands of rural money lenders, who were drawn from a variety of communities. They advanced loans to both agriculturist and non-agriculturist borrowers. According to intensive surveys conducted by the Provincial Banking Enquiry Committee in 1929-30

Mahajans and *Banias* formed only 15 3% of the total number of families engaged in money lending in rural Delhi Other castes engaged in this business were the Khatris, Jats, Gujars and the Muslims It is notable that money lending is rarely combined with agriculture as an occupation, there were only 40 workers claiming to be partial agriculturists among the 1,305 persons who were classified by the 1921 Census according to occupation under the category of bank managers, money lenders, exchange brokers, insurance agents, money changers etc

Rural Indebtedness

Before proceeding to the discussion of banking proper, we may refer first to the scanty information available in the related topic of rural indebtedness In his final Settlement Report of the Delhi District for 1906-10, Major C H Beadon estimated that the unsecured debt of the proprietors was Rs 3·5 million, a sum which was about four times the corresponding land revenue demand This represented an average amount of debt of Rs 40 per individual proprietor For the subsequent period, we must refer to a sample survey of families conducted by the above noted Banking Enquiry Committee of 1929-30 This enquiry covered 759 families living in a sample of 14 villages of Delhi This survey revealed that only 122 of the 759 families were free from debt The burden of debt varied greatly from one to another of the remaining 637 families and the average debt per family for this lot of families with debt was as high as Rs 950 The survey further revealed that 41 per cent of the total debt had been incurred for short periods of time, these were incurred for meeting expenses on fodder, seed manure, weeding, land revenue etc Nearly 32 per cent of the debt was for somewhat longer (intermediate) durations, such loans were taken mainly for purchase of cattle and agricultural implements, but also used for litigation, marriage and funeral ceremonies etc The remaining 27 per cent of the debt was of long term nature and was contracted for the purposes of purchasing land, constructing wells, reoccupying mortgaged land and buildings and also for repayment of old debts Among the lending agencies, 49 per cent of the total volume of debt was provided by non-agriculturist money lenders, 43 per cent by agriculturist money lenders 6 per cent by co-operative societies and only 2 per cent by the Government The bulk of the money lending business was in the hands of private money lenders.

For the latest position on this topic, we refer to the census surveys of ten villages of the Territory which were conducted in conjunction with the 1961 census operations According to these

surveys, 683 or 65% of the 1048 families covered by the investigation were in debt which aggregated to Rs 1,118,733. The average amount per family in debt was thus Rs 1,638. The purpose for which these debts were claimed to have been incurred are as follows

TABLE 1

Purpose of contracting debts

Purpose	Amount (Rs.)	Percentage
Purchase of cattle	1,66,474	14 9
Purchase of land	22,550	2 0
Purchase of seeds, implements etc	2,32,040	20 8
Construction of wells	49,160	4 4
Business .	72,150	6·4
Construction of houses .	1,92,570	17 2
Repayment of loans .	9,250	0 8
Social and religious functions .	1,96,408	17·6
Domestic needs	1,68,931	15 1
Litigation	9,200	
Total	11,18,733	100 0

More than half the aggregate amount of debt had evidently been incurred to meet non-productive items of expenditure like domestic needs, social and religious functions, residential house construction and even litigation Loans which might have contributed to increase in agricultural productivity account for 42.1 per cent of the total The remaining over six per cent were devoted to the running of business.

The distribution of the aggregate debt, according to the lending agencies, is as follows·

TABLE 2

Lending agencies in rural areas in Delhi, 1961

Agency	Amount (Rs)	Percentage
Private money lender	3,13,482	28 0
Government	3,03 045	27 1
Relatives and friends	1,43,175	12 8
Cooperatives	1,39,077	12 4
Zamindars etc	2,19,954	19 7
Total	11,18,733	100 0

Role Of Private Money Lenders And Financiers

The share of co-operative credit societies is very small in rural finance The private money lender is still the most important source of loans for the rural population The three private sources including the money lender, the zamindar, and relatives and friends, have supplied over 60 per cent of the aggregate debt noted above The rate of interest varies according to the lending agency The Government charges on the *taccavi* loans 4 per cent per annum, while the co-operative societies charge over 9 per cent The highest rates are charged by the money lenders, and these vary from a minimum of 12 per cent to as much as 36 per cent, the model rate being 18 per cent

The above references to the surveys conducted by the Banking Enquiry Committee in 1929-30 and by the Census in 1961 are illustrative of the problem of rural indebtedness They do not indicate any trend There obviously is a great difference between the position of 1930 and that of 1961 What is evident is that the problem existed almost in equal acuteness in 1961 In the intervening period legislative action was from time to time taken to alleviate the position of the families in debt and to protect them from usurious practices of the money lenders It is not possible to indicate the extent to which these legislative measures were successful The alleviation in actual practice was limited to the extent to which preferred agencies like the Government and co-operative societies had stepped in to provide the finance These two agencies together supplied only over 8 per cent of the aggregate debt in 1929-30 according to the Banking Enquiry Survey while according to the Census Survey, they accounted in 1961 for nearly 40 per cent of the aggregate The legislative measures which were introduced in the intervening period were the following

(1) The permanent alienation of land is disallowed without prior sanction of the collector unless the alienee is a member of the same tribe in the same group under the Punjab Land Alienation Act, as applied to the Delhi Territory

(2) The agriculturists are protected against the exaction of unjust debts notwithstanding their ability to pay under the provisions of the insolvency law

(3) Under Indian Usurious Loans Act of 1918, as extended to the Union Territory of Delhi, it is provided that in case the law court has reasons to believe that in any suit the interest is excessive and the transaction between the parties was substantially unfair, it can (i) reopen the transaction, (ii) take account between the parties, (iii) relieve the debtor of all liability in respect of any excessive interest, notwithstanding any agreement purporting to their previous dealings, and (iv) order the creditor to repay any sum which it considers to be repayable to the debtor or to indemnify the debtor in such manner and to such an extent as it may deem just, provided that it shall not reopen any agreement purporting to close previous dealings which have been entered into by the parties concerned at a date more than six years from the date of the transaction

Present Lending Agencies

At present lending agencies which advance major portion of loans to the rural areas of Delhi are as follows

1 Co-operative institutions
2 Nationalised banks
3 Direct loans by the Government

Some of the other lending agencies are

(a) Agriculture Re-finance Corporation
(b) Agriculture Finance Corporation

Co-operative institutions —In these institutions financing is done by

A Delhi State Co-operative bank
B Land Mortgage section of the above mentioned bank
C. Village Co-operative Societies

Loans given in the rural areas are of three types ·

1 Short-term loans.
2 Medium-term loans.
3 Long-term loans.

Short-term loans comprise of crop loans and loans for seeds, fertiliser, milch cattle etc

Medium-term loans for sinking of wells, pumping sets, tube-wells etc. (these are for three to five years duration).

Long-term loans are for tractors and land development etc (these are for seven to ten years duration)

Besides this, most of the nationalised banks are also advancing loans for rural development

Direct loans by the Government

Previously Government used to advance heavy amount of loans But recently Government has changed the policy and most of the loans are given by co-operative and nationalised banks, except in case of cattle and poultry loans which are also likely to be stopped soon

Joint Stock Banks And Loan And Investment Companies

Modern Banking

Modern banking started with the arrival of the British By 1857, three Banks were already working in Delhi. Two of these, the bank of Bengal of (Calcutta) and the North Western Bank of Lahore, had their branches, while the third bank, called the Delhi Banking Corporation, had established its head-quarters here These banks served mainly the military and civil services of the Government and also took part in the financing of tea and indigo plantations of Upper India Thereafter, the Punjab National Bank was founded here in 1895 with a paid-up capital of Rs. 41,000 and initial deposits of over Rs 0 125 million The present century has witnessed almost a continuous growth of modern banking in Delhi Firstly on Delhi's becoming the Capital of British India in 1912, and secondly to the Government of India taking up the processes of planned economic development in 1950. By 1912, the number of joint stock banks operating in Delhi had reached six, these were the Bank of Bengal, the National Bank of India, the Delhi Banking Corporation, the Allahabad Bank, the Punjab National Bank and the Bank of Upper India

Joint Stock Banks

The following Table shows the number of Joint Stock companies and their paid up capital in 1954-55, 1960-61 and 1963-64 Apart from this, several European Exchange Banks had also entered the Delhi financial circle

TABLE 3

Number of Joint-Stock companies and their paid-up capital in Delhi

(Rs in '000)

Particulars	1954-55		1960-61		1963-64	
	No	Paid-up capital	No	Paid-up capital	No.	Paid-up capital
1. Agriculture and Allied Activities	23	2,613	14	2,123	17	4,870
2. Processing and Manufacture	434	1,43,829	534	7,00,641	698	12,93,397
3. Constructing and Utilities	44	52,155	55	23,152	60	4,75,597
4. Commerce, Trade and Finance	641	1,18,799	663	1,60,467	1,012	2,44,282
(a) Trade (Wholesale and retail)	431	24,519	365	55,770	440	97,742
(b) Real Estate, Land and Estate companies and 3 × similar organisations (excluding agriculture land)	26	3,284	31	8,361	50	11,147
(c) Insurance Companies	18	15,214	15	7,295	10	8,361
(d) Banking, Loan companies and other Institutions.	85	65,921	219	77,010	479	1,19,638
5. Transport, Communications and Storage						
1 Total	117	29,522	186	25,909	181	45,436
2 Road Transport	N A	N A	150	6,433	146	7,881
6. Community and Business Service	44	7,177	50	16,702	73	7,105
7. Personnel and other Services	171	8,811	108	28,492	111	29,472

N A—Stands for Not Available

With the transfer of the Capital to New Delhi in the twenties, the new financial centre began to develop in the Connaught Place area with the existing banks located in the Old Delhi's Chandni Chowk area opening branches there By 1935, the combined strength of these two financial centres of Delhi had risen to 30 offices The introduction of the Federal Constitution, which provided for provincial autonomy, also resulted in far reaching changes in the banking structure of the country The Reserve Bank of India was created with its headquarters at Bombay to perform the functions of a Central Bank, the Imperial Bank, with its principal offices in Delhi was left to expand its commercial business and the commercial banks were divided into two separate categories for the purpose of regulating their business, namely the scheduled and the non-scheduled banks Delhi under this new structure continued to progress rapidly in this field and at the time of the final codification of the banking legislation in 1949, as many as 33 banks, including ten scheduled banks were operating in Delhi The total number of offices was 85 with deposits amounting to Rs 586 2 million and advances to Rs 158 4 million Delhi had then three per cent of the total number of banking offices in the country four per cent of the advances and seven per cent of the deposits The consolidated position of banks in the Delhi circle on the basis of the data of the reporting banks on December 31, 1949, was as follows

TABLE 4

Principal assets and liabilities of reporting banking companies in the Delhi Circle

(Amount in Rs millions)

	Scheduled	Non-Scheduled
Number of reporting banks	10	21
Paid-up Capital	39 2	4 7
Reserves	21 3	3 1
Demand deposits	286 6	8 5
Time deposits	266 2	15 8

	Schedule	Non-Schedule
Total deposits	552 8	24·3
Due to other banks	16·0	1 8
Liquid assets, cash in hand, balances with banks, money at call or short notice.	74 3	2 7
Investment in Government securities including treasury bills.	266 6	4 8
Other investments	23 2	3 3
Loans, advances, over drafts, cash credits bills purchased and discounted and dues from banks	262 0	14 8

Since 1949, commercial banking has made rapid progress in Delhi as seen from the following Table

TABLE 5

Progress of commercial banking in Delhi, 1950-68

(Amount in Rs millions)

Year	No of Banks	No of Offices	Total Deposits	Total Advances
1950 . .	31	83	502 7	156·2
1955 . .	32	91	640 0	195 4
1960	34	162	3,755 5	515·9
1965	34	221	2,783·2	865 0
1966 . .	35	239	3,255 2	1,063 0
1967 .	35	247	3,643 5	1,314 6
1968	35	257	4,263 4	2,452 1

While there has not been any significant variation in the number of banks operating in Delhi, the total number of banking offices as well as deposits and advances show progressive increase Compared to 1950, there were in 1961 more than twice as many banking offices, while the aggregate deposits had increased from Rs 503 to 4,263 million and the aggregate advances from Rs 156

to 2,452 million The growth of offices and advances was continuous all through the period In the case of deposits, the expansion during 1955-60 was phenomenal and it was followed in 1960-65 by a sizable decrease The increase of 1955-60 is traced to the government's practice of making rupee payments for imports received under the P L 480 agreement From October 1956 to May 1960, P L 480 funds had been kept with the State Bank largely in time deposits In May 1960, this arrangement was terminated Since then the fresh funds were maintained with the Reserve Bank which invests almost the entire P L 480 balance in special securities Concurrently, the existing P L 480 deposits with the State Bank were transferred to the Reserve Bank in monthly instalments of Rs 120 million commencing with July, 1960 By 1965, these operations were largely concluded The progressive increase since 1965 is reflected equally in the deposits and in the advances This had been free from any abnormal boost in deposits like the above-noted operation of rupee finance of the P L 480 imports

The growth of banking business especially during the 60's has been more pronounced for Delhi as compared to most other financial centres of the country This is reflected in the following proportions claimed by Delhi in the national aggregates of deposits and advances of the commercial banks

TABLE 6

Per cent share of Delhi in commercial banking in the country

Year	Deposits	Advances
1949	7 0	4 0
1950	6 0	3 0
1955	6 0	3 0
1960	20 1	4 4
1965	9 0	1 1
1966	9 0	1 3
1967	9 2	4·8
1968	9·5	7 8

The share in the number of banking offices had not varied during the period In 1949 Delhi had 3 0 per cent of the total number of banking offices in the country and in 1968, the corresponding proportion was 3 3 per cent There was thus an increase in the average volume of business transacted per office The variation in deposits between 1960-65 is striking, as noted earlier it had resulted from the Government's procedure of financing the P L 480 funds The abnormal rise in Delhi's share of the national aggregate of deposits is indicative only of the fact that it was the State Bank of India in Delhi where the deposits in lieu of the P L 480 imports were mainly placed It is further notable that for the period as a whole the rate of improvement in the share of Delhi has been much pronounced in respect of advances than of deposits

The recent growth of banking business in Delhi is further reflected in statistics of clearing house which is managed by the Reserve Bank of India in New Delhi and of which all the scheduled banks as well as the State co-operative banks are members

TABLE 7

Cheque clearances, 1964–68

Year	No. of cheques in thousands	Amount of cheques (in Rs Millions)
1964	3,606	10,035
1965	4,991	11,135
1966	4,680	12,977
1967	4,823	15,070
1968	5,404	19,574

Over this brief period of four years, there was over 95 per cent increase in the aggregate amount of cheques handled by the clearing house The share of Delhi in the aggregate amount of cheques cleared by all clearing houses in the country increased from 5 6 per cent in 1964 to 7.2 per cent in 1968 This confirms

the view that banking habit is spreading among business circles and the general public in Delhi at a faster rate than in the rest of the country

For the latest position of commercial banking in Delhi we give in the accompanying table a list of all banks that were operating at the end of 1968 together with the number of branches and other offices Including the Reserve Bank of India, there were 44 banks in the Delhi Metropolis, which comprised the Delhi Municipal Corporation, New Delhi Municipality and the Delhi Cantonment The total of 43 commercial banks is made up of 30 scheduled banks one non-scheduled bank, six cooperative banks and six foreign banks The total number of their offices is 275, comprising nine registered offices 28 pay offices, 40 sub-branch offices and 198 branch offices Nine of these were only administrative offices and did not engage in banking business these included six registered offices, two administrative offices and one local head office In terms of the number of offices, the Punjab National Bank is placed first in the order of importance with 48 offices Among the more important of the remaining banks the Central Bank of India has 27, the State Bank of India 26, the United Commercial Bank, 18 the Bank of India and the National Bank of Lahore 14 each, New Bank of India 12 Oriental Bank of Commerce 11 and the Bank of Baroda, the National and Grindlays Bank and the Union Bank of India, ten offices each

Another significant development in commercial banking in the present decade is the area spread of branch banking All the different localities of the expanding Delhi-New Delhi metropolis are served by the above-noted 276 business offices The old concentrations of banking business in the Chandni Chowk and the Connaught Place-Parliament Street area continue to prosper but newer areas too are attracting banks to open their branch offices The largest number of offices is 31 in Chandni Chowk followed by 31 in Connaught Place-Connaught Circus area Apart from these, we have 20 offices in Karol Bagh which has emerged into a major centre of retail trade after 1951, 13 in Parliament Street, which has attracted more the head offices, administrative offices and registered offices than the branch offices, and 13 also in the old but still dominating wholesale centre of Sadar Bazar Notable other localities served by bank offices are Patel Nagar with 11 and Darya Ganj, Sabzimandi, Asaf Ali Road and Janpath with ten offices each The remaining 117 bank offices are scatter-

ed in smaller groups far and wide over the length and the breadth of the Metropolis, from Shahdara in the East to Punjabi Bagh in the West and from Mehrauli in South to Timarpur in the North

Finally, we take the commercial banks which were registered in Delhi, which may, therefore, be said to have started their banking business here and indicate their present position in the accompanying table It will be seen from these comparative data, that the Punjab National Bank is by far the largest of the Delhi banks It has the largest number of offices and claims 88 per cent of the aggregate value of assets of these seven banks. In fact the Punjab National Bank occupies a very prominent position in the banking business of the country as a whole According to net-worth (paid-up capital plus reserves) the Punjab National Bank occupies the fifth position in the order of importance This order is led by the State Bank of India with its net-worth of Rs. 189 million at the end of 1968, with its net-worth of Rs 68 million, the Punjab National Bank is preceded in this order by the United Commercial Bank, with net-worth of Rs 69 6 million, the Bank of India with that of Rs 100 2 million and the Central Bank of India with that of Rs 118 6 million, and is immediately followed by the Bank of Baroda with a net-worth of Rs 56 6 million Among the other smaller Delhi banks, we have the Punjab and Kashmir Bank which is a non-scheduled bank It was registered in Rawalpindi in 1912 and its registered office was transferred to Delhi at the time of partition

TABLE 8

Banks operating in Delhi and their offices, 1968

	Total	Branch	Sub-Branch	Pay Office	Others	
					In Business	Not doing bank business
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Allahabad Bank . . .	6	6	.	..		..
American Express International Banking Corporation	1	1				.
Andhra Bank . . .	1	1	.	.		..
ank of Baroda . . .	10	10				.

TABLE 8—*Contd*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Bank of Maharashtra	1	1				
Bank of India	14	14				
Bank of Rajasthan	1	1				
Bank of Tokyo	1	1				
Canara Bank	2	2				
Central Bank of India	27	3	23	1		
Chartered Bank	2	1	1			
Delhi State Cooperative Bank	8	7			H O	
Dena Bank	7	6				A O
First National City Bank	1	1				
Hindustan Commercial Bank	2	2				
Hindustan Mercantile Bank	1	1				
Indian Bank	2	2				
Indian Overseas Bank	4	4				
Jain Cooperative Urban Bank	1				H O	
J & K Handloom Fabrics Industrial Co-operative Bank	1	1				
Janta Co-operative Urban Bank	1				H O	
Krishnaram Baldeo Bank	9	8				
Laxmi Commercial Bank	1	1			R O	
Mercantile Bank	2	1			S O	
Narang Bank of India	2	1				R O
National and Grindlays Bank	10	9		1		
National Bank of Lahore	14	13				R O
New Bank of India	12	11				R O
Oriental Bank of Commerce	11	10			R O	
Punjab and Kashmir Bank	3	2				R O
Punjab and Sind Bank	5	4				R O
Punjab Cooperative Bank	1	1				R O
Punjab National Bank	48	28		18		A O

TABLE 8—*Contd.*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Reserve Bank of India . .	.	..	..	—	—	—
State Bank of Bikaner & Jaipur.	4	4	..	..	..	—
State Bank of India . . .	26	17	—	8	L.H O	—
State Bank of Patiala . .	1	1	—	—	—	—
Syndicate Bank . . .	6	6	—	—	—	—
Traders Bank . . .	2	1	..	..	R.O.	..
Union Bank of India . .	10	9	..	.	—	L H O
United Bank of India . .	4	4	.	..	.	.
United Commercial Bank . .	18	2	16	..	..	..
Vaish Cooperative Urban Bank .	1	—	—	—	H O.	—
Vaish Cooperative New Bank .	1	.	.		H O.	..
TOTAL	285	198	40	28	10	9

(*Abbreviation* : H O -Head Office; R O - Registered Office. A O.- Administrative Office, S O - Sub Office, L H. O - Local Head Office)

TABLE 9

Position of commercial banks registered in Delhi 1968

Bank	Year of establishment	No of Offices	
		Total in India	In Delhi
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1 The Punjab National Bank	1895	531	48
2 The National Bank of Lahore . .	1942	24	14
3 The New Bank of India . . .	1936	37	12
4 The Oriental Bank of Commerce	1943	27	11
5 The Laxmi Commercial Bank . .	1926	22	9
6 The Punjab & Kashmir Bank* . .	1912	3	3
7 The Narang Bank of India . . .	1942	10	2
8 The Traders Bank .	1933	2	2

*Refers to 1967

Bank	Paid up Capital	Reserves	Deposits	Other liabilities	Balance of profit/loss (—)
	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
1 The Punjab National Bank .	20,000	48,150	34,94,481	10,12,373	76
2 The National Bank of Lahore	1,500	1,780	91,171	19,220	6
3. The New Bank of India .	1,494	3,767	1,54,363	48,756	407
4. The Oriental Bank of Commerce .	1,661	1,885	1,59,820	36,359	1
5 The Laxmi Commercial Bank	1,092	2,105	78,680	17,081	1
6. The Punjab & Kashmir Bank	1,787	22	1,571	1,871	44
7 The Narang Bank of India	513	50	1,718	406	
8 The Traders Bank	577	38	676	1,087	816

Bank	Liquid assets**	Loans & Advances	Investments	Other assets	Total assets or liabilities
	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)
1 The Panjab National Bank	654,857	1,749,669	1,315,096	855,458	4,575,080
2. The National Bank of Lahore .	42,345	28,456	26,988	15,901	1,13,690
3 The New Bank of India . .	41,258	68,161	57,148	42,2.9	2,08,786
4 The Oriental Bank of Commerce .	45,959	6,371	55,555	31,841	1,99,726
5 The Laxmi Commercial Bank	21,672	35,457	26,353	15,777	99,259
6 The Punjab and Kashmir Bank .	908	1,389	378	2,620	5,295
7 The Narang Bank of India .	428	805	996	458	2,687
8. The Traders Bank	369	268	252	673	2,378
					5,206,901

**Include cash in hand and at banks, money at call or short notice, bill discounted and purchased

Four of the remaining six banks were likewise founded in Pakistan at Lahore and were shifted to Delhi at the time of the Partition. Among them, the position of the Traders Bank is particularly weak There remain the two banks, the Laxmi and the Oriental Bank of Commerce, which were, like the Punjab National Bank, founded in Delhi Both these banks are scheduled banks, they are in sound financial position, their main business is concentrated in Delhi but they are spreading their branch networks in northern India

Nationalisation Of Banks

The major development affecting the banking system was the nationalisation of fourteen banks with effect from July 19 1969 In the Union Territory of Delhi the assets, liabilities, rights of the Punjab National Bank (which had its headquarter) were transferred to and vested in the corresponding new bank which became a new Statutory Corporate body

All the 14 nationalised banks viz Allahabad Bank, Bank of Baroda Bank of India, Bank of Maharashtra, Canara Bank, Central Bank of India, Dena Bank, Indian Bank Indian Overseas Bank Punjab National Bank, Syndicate Bank, Union Bank of India, United Bank of India and United Commercial Bank, have their important offices in Delhi

The number of offices of banks functioning in the Union Territory was 371 in 1971 as would be seen from the following table

Number of Banks in Delhi

Category	Number	
	1969	1971
State Bank of India Group	45	64
Nationalised Bank	161	225
Other Scheduled Banks in Private Sector . . .	50	64
Foreign Banks	18	18

Post Office Saving Banks

In the mobilisation of the savings of the general public, the post office saving account has come to play an increasing role, particularly during the planning period The Government measures to encourage savings of the people in the middle and lower strata of the society through postal saving schemes were pursued vigorously since the commencement of the Second Five Year Plan The response of Delhi to these measures has been very encouraging This is indicated below by the statistics indicating the aggregate position of the savings accounts with the post offices in the Delhi Metropolitan area

TABLE 10

Post Office Savings Account, 1955-68

Year	No of head Banks	No of sub-banks	No of accounts at the end of year	Balance outstanding at the end of year in Rs million	Average No of depositors per bank	Average balance per bank in Rs thousands
1955 .	2	84	1,84,880	110 2	2,150	1,281
1960	2	117	2,38,593	144 2	2,005	1,212
1965	3	211	3,27,109	196 9	1,529	920
1966	3	215	3,99,484	250 7	1,832	1,150
1967 .	3	221	4,28,061	265 4	1,836	1,169
1968 . .	3	228	4,47,415	278 3	1,629	1,200

There has been a progressive increase in the volume of saving bank business handled by post offices in Delhi through the period covered by the above table Compared to the position in 1955, the number of sub-banks was larger in 1968 by 170 per cent, the aggregate number of accounts by 142 per cent and the aggregate volume of deposits by 153 per cent The average amount of deposit per depositor was Rs 596 in 1955, Rs 605 in 1960 Rs 602 in 1965 and Rs 621 in 1968.

The following Table, however, gives the progress achieved under Small Saving Schemes during the last few years

TABLE 11

Small Saving Schemes

(000' Rs·)

Year	10-Year National Saving Certificates (Bank series)		10-Year National Saving Certificates		12-Year National Defence Certificates		10-Year Defence Saving Certificates	
	Gross	Net	Gorss	Net	Gross	Net	Gross	Net
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
1966-67 . .	39	39	3,614	3,614	35,503	11,538	3,005	(—) 2,241
1967-68 . .	27	27	2,609	2,282	40,194	23,186	1,683	(—) 2,141
1968-69 . . .	16	16	2,820	2,325	39,823	27,079	1,950	(—) 1,040
1969-70	7	7	2,643	1,972	54,620	36,802	2,123	(—)4,182
1970-71	.			(—) 724		(—) 23,678		(—) 8,915
1971-72 . . .				*		(—) 22,311		(—) 12,263

NOTE —*Included in 12 Year National Defence Certificates

TABLE 11—*Contd.*

Small Saving Schemes

(000' Rs)

Year	15-Year Annuity Certificates		Post Office Saving Bank		Cumulative Time Deposit Scheme	
	Gross	Net	Gross	Net	Gross	Net
	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)
1966-67	53	(—) 122	1,29,679	3,251	4,705	3,477
1967-68	62	(—) 120	1,44,564	1,213	5,985	4,293
1968-69	87	(—) 107	1,53,497	8,920	7,227	4,680
1969-70 . .	133	(—) 75	1,59,165	9,752	9,286	5,506
1970-71 .	42	(—) 177	1,73,466	16,496	11,547	5,603
1971-72 . . .		(—) 144	1,83,529	10,224	13,218	7,338

Cooperative Credit

Cooperative credit societies dealing in the business of financing agricultural sector, form a distinctive category of banking. They form a part of the more comprehensive cooperative organisation which, as in other States, involves a two-tier system consisting of an Apex body at the State level and primary societies at the local level The apex body in Delhi is the Delhi State Cooperative Bank which was registered in 1921 It is the central financing agency for all cooperative credit and multipurpose societies in Delhi It also serves as a balancing centre, accepting the surplus funds of an affiliated primary society as deposit at a fair rate of interest and transferring them to another experiencing deficit of funds The membership of the Bank is open to individuals as well There was a progressive increase in the membership of the Bank from 624 in 1950-51 to 780 in 1955-56 and 1,116 in 1959-60, while its working capital had increased from Rs 3 9 million in 1950-51 to Rs 9 5 million in 1959-60 The volume of credit advanced by the Bank increased from only about Rs 0 6 million in 1950-51 to 3 3 million in 1957-58 but decreased to Rs 1 1 million in 1959-60 Thereafter, there was a continual increase to an impressive amount of Rs 9 6 million in 1968-69 The Government has provided assistance to the Bank under the Five Year Plan In the Second Plan, the Government contributed a sum of Rs 0 13 million to its share capital and in the Third Plan a further sum of Rs 0 10 million was given for the same purpose Apart from this, the Bank was given, during the Third Plan period, a sum of Rs 81,000 of which Rs 40,000 formed a managerial subsidy Rs 18,000 were given as outright grant for creating a special bad debt reserve, and Rs 23,000 as a subsidy for its land mortgage section The Fourth Plan envisages further assistance to the Bank to enable it to increase the amount of its advances to primary cooperative societies to a level of Rs 16 4 million in 1973-74

Working under the above apex body, the Delhi State Cooperative Bank are the agricultural credit or multipurpose cooperative societies, which are now functioning in almost all the villages of the Union Territory The function of a credit society is to provide financial assistance to the agriculturists on personal security, guaranteed by at least two members of the society The borrowers are also required to subscribe to the share capital of the society to the tune of at least one-fifth of the maximum credit limit sanctioned to the members A multipurpose society additionally serves other needs of the members, including assistance in marketing agricultural produce and in procuring inputs

like chemical fertilisers, seeds, etc The societies advance short-term loans to agriculturists for the purpose of seeds, fertilisers and also cattle, and medium loans for sinking wells, installing pumping sets and other productive purpose, like bunding, fencing etc The progress, during the planning period, of the primary cooperative societies, of which credit cooperation forms the main part, is reflected in the following data about their working

TABLE 12

Progress of cooperation, 1951-68

(Amount in Rs Million)

	1950—51	1955—56	1960—61	1965—66	1966—67	1967—68
No of societies .	611	1,432	2,019	2,212	2,224	2,291
No of members . .	19,650	87,726	180,433	364,150	372,897	403,000
Per centage of population covered		25	34	75	76	
Share Capital		18 8	66 4	36 2	37 5	38 4
Working Capital	13 2	31 4	99 3	281 1	285 1	311 0
Deposits		18 8	66 4	185 7	183 9	185 0
Loans, short & medium term . . .		23 8	87 5	190 2	33 1	56 7
Loans—long term .				0 5	0 1	03
Loans—outstanding		8 6	28 7	37 2	64 6	

Agricultural Credit

The number of agricultural credit societies, included above in the total number of cooperative societies was 232 in 1950-51 and 369 in 1960-61 Thereafter, the number of credit societies did

not show any increase The reason is that from the commencement of the Third Plan the official policy has emphasised the consolidation of the credit cooperative movement rather than its numerical expansion Revitalisation of the dormant societies and liquidation of non-viable units were given high priority with the result that the number of credit societies was reduced to 305 in 1965-66 and 293 in 1967-68 However, the membership of these societies has increased from 8,855 in 1950-51 to 30,676 in 1965-66 The corresponding increase in the share capital was from Rs 0 41 million to Rs 3 3 million The aggregate of short and medium term loans supplied by these societies to their members rose from 0 17 million in 1950-51 to Rs 0 67 million in 1967-68 Of late, the cooperative movement has been geared up to meet the needs of the high yielding varieties programme The cooperative credit action programme which formed a part of the above programme has been extended, from its initial coverage of 80 societies in 1965 to a total of 134 societies in 1968 The official assistance to the credit cooperatives has been in line with the assistance to the apex bank noted above Since 1961, the Government has given to the primary credit societies a sum of Rs 0 16 million by way of 'share contribution', Rs 0 15 million as managerial subsidy and Rs 0 05 million as outright grant for the creation of a special bad debt reserve.

General And Life Insurance

The insurance business in Delhi started in the last decade of the 19th century with the establishment of the Bharat Insurance Co in 1896 This was soon followed by the establishment of the Mutual Help Association Ltd , Simla, in the year 1899 Both these companies dealt only in the life insurance work During the thirties of this century, a large number of insurance companies were established In the year 1948-49, there were 21 life, fire and marine insurance companies, 2 provident insurance companies and 2 other insurance companies registered and working in Delhi Apart from these companies, a large number of other insurance companies registered outside Delhi had opened their offices in Delhi The following Table shows the number and paid up capital of insurance companies registered and at work in Delhi from 1947-48 to 1965-66

TABLE 13

Registered Insurance Companies 1947-48 *to* 1965-66

Year	No	Paid-up capital (in '000 Rs)
1947—48	21	164 55
1948—49	25	169 13
1949—50	26	206 50
1950—51	25	196 95
1951—52	24	182 25
1952—53	21	166 66
1953—54	N A	N A
1954—55	18	152 14
1955—56	15	101 65
1956—57	14	99 77
1957—58	13	67 68
1958—59	13	67 68
1959—60	13	67 68
1960—61	15	72 95
1961—62	15	73 47
1962—63	12	67 81
1963—64	10	83 61
1964—65	10	83 61
1965—66	11	46 76

The year 1956 was a landmark in the history of life insurance in India when it was nationalised The Life Insurance Corporation of India came into existence on 1st September, 1956 At the time of nationalisation, 16 erstwhile insurers (including the

'Bharat' Insurance Co) had their head offices in Delhi, while another 38 were doing business here through their branches Except for the general insurance business of Oriental Fire & General Insurance Co, Ltd and National Fire and General Insurance Co Ltd, life business of all insurers was nationalized 'Oriental' and 'National' in Delhi are transacting life business in exclusive offices as subsidiaries of the Corporation The life business of the 'New Asiatic' and 'New India' has been taken over by the Corporation, while their other business is still being independently carried on by their previous managements After nationalisation, the various head and branch office units conducting life business have integrated their offices with the Life Insurance Corporation Thus the various head offices working in Delhi have been combined with the three major head office units namely, Lakshmi Insurance Co Ruby General Insurance Co, and New Asiatic Insurance Co Similarly the branch offices have been integrated into five convenient units viz, Sunlight, Oriental, New India, National and Hindustan Co-operative The position of the Bharat Insurance Co is however peculiar, the private company has gone into liquidation and their general business has been taken over by an Administrator appointed by the Government

As mentioned above, there were only 55 life offices situated in Delhi at the time of nationalization It is not possible to have an exact account of the yearly life business obtained by all these companies from Delhi alone In the area now forming the Northern Zone and covering Delhi, Punjab Himachal Pradesh, Jammu and Kashmir and Rajasthan, the erstwhile insurers in their peak year 1955, did a total business of about Rs 23 crores The total business under this Zone came to about Rs 34 crores in 1957, Rs 44 crores in 1958 and about 52 crores in 1959 Corresponding figures for Delhi for these three years are Rs 13 10 crores, Rs 15 88 crores and Rs 19 crores respectively

Life Insurance Corporation Of India

The Delhi Division of the Life Insurance Corporation of India was established on 1st September 1956 when the Corporation came into existence At the time of the nationalisation the Corporation had ten branches 206 development officers and 9382 agents inherited mainly from the insurance companies By 1959, the business completed rose from Rs 13,10,74,062 in 1956 to Rs 29,11,80,880 and the number of branches to 20 The progress of insurance business in Delhi during the last decade is shown below:

(In Rupees)

Year	Business	Year	Business
1963-64	32,13,94,589	1968-69	38,75,28,209
1964-65	28,07,61,712	1969-70	45,38,79,259
1965-66	32,69,96,400	1970-71	57,70,87,387
1966-67	31,85,51,601	1971-72	74,55,97,753
1967-68	33,37,72,181	1972-73	1,01,10,58,003

The number of policies as on 31st December, 1972 was over five lakhs

The following steps taken after nationalisation by the Corporation deserve a special mention here

A janta policy scheme was introduced in Delhi in June, 1957 on an experimental basis mainly for catering to the needs of low income group Such a policy can be taken for a minimum amount of Rs 250 and a maximum amount of Rs 999 as against ordinary life policies of Rs 1000 The purpose of the scheme has been to inculcate saving habit among them and is expected to make them insurance-minded

A 'Salary Savings Scheme' was introduced by the Corporation whereby employees of institutions and semi-Government organisations fulfilling certain conditions could have their insurance premium deducted at source *i e* from their monthly salaries with the consent of their employers The Scheme has been very successful on account of its several attractive features including some rebate in the premiums Business obtained by the Corporation under this scheme was to the tune of Rs 2 crores in 1959

The Corporation has also introduced 'Group Insurance Scheme' whereby the employers by sharing a part of the premia can benefit their employees by taking life insurance policies for them Apart from other advantages, this scheme is likely to improve employer-employee relations Another attractive feature of the scheme is a reduction of 7½% in the premium rates

Hitherto, no specific training in insurance salsemenship was imparted to agents and field officers. The Corporation has set

up a training school at New Delhi for these officials Talks, group discussions, written tests, practical selling through 'clinics' etc, form the basic training methods

In order to facilitate policy-holders to deposit their premium at one central place in Delhi and New Delhi, two centralised Cash Collection Centres have been set up at Janpath, New Delhi, where premium in respect of all Corporation policies are being accepted

Nationalisation Of General Insurance

The Government of India nationalised the General Insurance under an ordinance known as the General Insurance (Emergency Provisions) Ordinance, 1971 promulgated on 13th May, 1971 The following Indian & Foreign Companies carrying on the general insurance in the Union Territory were merged in the Delhi Group of the General Insurance Corporation of India

Indian Companies

1 Bharat General Reinsurance Ltd (Closed Fund)
2 Central Mercantile Assurance Company Ltd
3 Devkaran Nanjee Insurance Company Ltd
4 Indian Mercantile Insurance Company Ltd
5 Jupiter General Insurance Company Ltd
6 Marine & General Insurance Company Ltd
7 New Great Insurance Company of India Ltd
8 Oriental Fire & General Insurance Company Ltd
9 Sterling General Insurance Company Ltd
10 Indian Guarantee & General Insurance Company Ltd

Foreign Companies

11 Baloise Insurance Company Ltd
12 Eagle Star Insurance Company Ltd
13 Gerling Global Reinsurance Company Ltd
14 Hanover Group.
(i) Hanover Insurance Company
(ii) New Hampshire Insurance Company.
15 L'Union Fire, Accident and General Insurance Company Ltd.

16 National Insurance Company of New Zealand Ltd
17 Phoenix Group
(i) British Aviation Insurance Company Ltd
(ii) London Guarantee & Accident Company Ltd
(iii) Phoenix Assurance Company Ltd
18 Switzerland General Insurance Company Ltd
19 Threadneedle Insurance Company Ltd
20 Tokio Marine and Fire Insurance Company Ltd
21 Yorkshire Insurance Company Ltd
22 Zurich Insurance Ltd

Stock Exchange

In the process of mobilising private savings for investment in the organized industrial and commercial sector, the stock exchange fulfills a very useful function of channelising investible funds With the growth of industry and trade in Delhi after the Second World War, the need for an organized stock market was keenly felt and two stock exchanges came into being These were the Delhi Stocks and Share Brokers Exchange Ltd, and the Delhi Stock and Share Brokers Association Ltd Independent operation of these two companies led to avoidable competition and unhealthy bifurcation of the market So in 1947, these two bodies were amalgamated into the Delhi Stock Exchange Association Limited which was freshly incorporated as a public limited company under the Indian Companies Act of 1913 Its authorized capital is Rs 5 lakhs divided into 2500 shares of Rs 200 each This exchange was granted recognition as a stock exchange by the Ministry of Finance in 1957 For the last over 20 years it has continued to serve the business community in Delhi and has emerged as the foremost stock exchange of Northern India and as one of the leading stock exchanges of the country According to its annual report (March 1969) its paid-up capital amounted to Rs 4 88 lakhs and its reserves to Rs 2 01 lakhs Its membership was 105, including 42 firms The number of companies whose shares and/or debentures are on the list of Exchange is 152 These include 24 engineering 21 textile 14 sugar, and 7 chemical industries

State Aid To Industrial Development

The scope for the growth of heavy industries being limited in Delhi, the main problem is to provide financial assistance for

the development of medium, small-scale and cottage industries Provision has, therefore, been made by the Government in their five year plans to provide financial assistance to small industrialists in various ways In order to augment the financial resources of the industrialists, an industrial finance corporation was established during the Second Plan period jointly with the Punjab Government The Corporation aimed at providing financial aid to small, cottage and medium-scale industrialists in the form of long-term loans at cheap rates against the security which is generally available with them but is not acceptable to the commercial banks Such industrial concerns as are on the brink of liquidation due to lack of funds are enabled to survive with the help available under this scheme The Joint Finance Corporation started functioning during the year 1957-58 The scheme proved popular and an amount of the order of Rs 8 1 million was distributed An expenditure of Rs 1 4 million was incurred against the Second Plan ceiling of Rs 1 6 million for the scheme as a proportionate share of the Union Territory of Delhi to the capital of the Corporation In 1962 it was replaced by the Delhi Financial Corporation with its jurisdiction confined to the Delhi Territory For the Fourth Five Year Plan the new Corporation proposed to have capital outlay of Rs 22 7 million of which Rs 20 0 million are earmarked for disbursement to small-scale industries According to the present estimates of the Corporation the total investment in the industries of Delhi will rise to Rs 30 0 million by the end of the plan, Rs 10 0 million of this will go to finance the shifting of industries from non-conforming to conforming areas under the schemes of the Delhi Master Plan, and Rs 20 0 million will be devoted to the creation of block assets like land, building, machinery, plants The industrial schemes thus financtd by the Corporation at the end of the plan period in Delhi are estimated in the aggregate, to be of the order of Rs 65 0 million inclusive of working capital, of this the industrial assets alone will be worth about Rs 50 0 million, inclusive of the capital invested by the borrowing concerns The number of industrial units to be so financed is 250

The Government also provides loans under 'State aid to cottage and small scale industries' In view of the limited financial resources of the small units, the scheme aims at providing cheap and long-term finance to them Ministry of Commerce framed in 1949, model rules for State aid to Industries in the centrally administered areas and also provided some funds to the Delhi State Bank for advancing loans to cottage, small-scale and medium-scale industries The scheme was started in the

year 1952-53 and a total amount of Rs 2.22 million was advanced to as many as 469 units during the First Five Year Plan. An Industrial Advisory Board was also constituted for the purpose These rules were replaced by the Delhi State Aid to Small-scale and Cottage Industries Rules of 1956 for ensuring fair distribution of the loans The following statement shows the number of small scale industrial units and the amount of loans advanced to the industrialists between 1952-53 to 1969-70, under the Block Loan Scheme of Delhi Administration.

TABLE 14

Statement indicating the amounts of loans advanced to small scale industrial units in Delhi under Block Loan Scheme of Delhi Administration

Year	No of units	Amount sanctioned
1952-53	21	1,11,400
1953-54	76	3,63,250
1954-55	184	8,44,750
1955-56	184	8,89,675
1956-57	179	9,84,500
1957-58	243	15,24,700
1958-59	157	4,79,450
1959-60	243	5,79,200
1960-61	277	8,57,950
1961-62	296	11,00,000
1962-63	191	12,00,000
1963-61	187	10,00,000
'964-65	189	10,00,000
1965-66	188	11,50,000
1966-67	198	11,60,000
1967-68	229	11,49,500
1968-69	259	15,00,000
1969-70	489	21,75,000

Apart from the above two schemes, the State Bank of India has also initiated the Pilot Scheme for advancing loans to the small and medium size industrial units Under this scheme, the bank up to 28 February, 1969, sanctioned loans to 46 industrial units which amounted to Rs 1 83 million.

For an over all view of the effort of the Government in the field of industrial development, we may note that the action has been limited to medium and small scale industries, including the cottage industries The plan expenditure on industrial development amounted during 1951-69 to Rs 47.2 million and accounted for only 2 6 per cent of the total The Draft of the Fourth Plan provides, on the other hand, for an outlay of Rs 57.7 million for the five year period from 1970 to 1974. The village and small industries schemes proposed to be financed under this head are listed in Table 15

TABLE 15

Assistance to village and small industries in the Fourth Plan

Sl No.	Name of the scheme	Amount (In Rs. Million)
1	Handloom industries	3 10
2	Weavers' colony	3 00
3	Powerlooms	0 35
4	Block loans to small scale industries	10 00
5	Loan assistance to shifting industries	15 00
6	Export promotion	3 30
7	Permanent Exhibition-cum-Emporium	1·00
8	Common facility centres for sport goods industry	0 50
9	Common facility centres for electronic industry	0 75
10	Common facility centres for leather industries	0 25
11	Survey, Research, planning and commercial intelligence	0 80
12	Craftsman cooperative emporium	0 40
13	Compulsory quality control-domestic electric appliances	0 50
14	Modernisation of small scale industries	1 00
15	Leather goods flatted factories	2·60
16	Functional industrial estate	4·00
17	Rural industries	3 80
18	Co-operative industries estate	1 60
19	Handicrafts promotion	0 90
20	Craftsmen training	0 25
21	Khadi and Village industries	0·55

Currency And Coinage

The Union Territory of Delhi has no local currency and coinage of its own But the importance of Delhi in the field of

currency and coinage lies in the fact that the office of R Bank of India functioning in Delhi has the authority to out currency and coins in sufficient number so as to me requirements of not only Delhi but even of other States.

One of the most important factors in the field of cu and coinage was the introduction of decimal system on 1st 1957, when annas, pies were changed into naya paise on, when old coins were totally withdrawn and new coins in abundance naya paisa was changed to paisa from 1st 1964

On 2nd October, 1969, coins and currency were issu commemorate the memory of Mahatma Gandhi. On 16th ber, 1970, coins were issued in honour of Food and Agric Organisation These coins and currencies are in circulati the Union Territory of Delhi since then.

Trade And Commerce

As noted earlier there was a progressive increase in importance of Delhi as a trading centre The latest even served to increase this importance greatly was the indeper and the partition of the country into India and Pakistan partition led to a sudden increase in Delhi's population ded a large number of refugees who were living in cities provinces which went to Pakistan and most of them bel to the trading and mercantile community Apart from this, also absorbed the transfer of trade and commerce from L the parts of Punjab that were depending on Lahore had s ed over their business to Delhi The introduction of pla further increased the importance of Delhi in the field of merce as distinguished from trade in commodities proper In the fifties a strong upward trend in the volume of transacted in Delhi was established To indicate the for this more recent trend, we give in the accompanying Table 1 ports and exports into Delhi of some 63 commodities, are reported in trade journals, for three years, *viz*, 19 1959-60 and 1966-67

Comparing the 1966-67 and 1955-56 figures, it will be that imports had increased in respect of all commodities ex ing sheep and goats, coarse grains like jawar, bajra and n wheat flour, hides and skins, gunny bags and cloth, oil s

TABLE 10

Statement showing the import and export of goods by rail and road transport in different years

		1955-56		1959-60		1966-67	
		Import	Export	Import	Export	Import	Export
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Livestock (cattle excluding sheep & goats)	No	1,428	6,902	4,812	1,15,451	5,335	26,927
2. Horses, Ponies & Mules	,,	188	188	136	153	818	54
3 Sheep & Goats	,,	32,212	743	1,084	2,722	19,252	3,044
4. Livestock (others)	,,	1,320	1,112	3,462	1,511	8,268	3,002
5. Bones	Quintal	10,407	19,588	11,232	2,473	14,258	9,104
6. Cement	,,	1,615,616	19,769	20,69,588	14,660	35,39,474	13,159
7. Coal & Coke	,,	68 81,965		67,81,616	16,193	1,79,70,182	30,798
8. Coffee	,,	1,130	33	422	28	2,300	35
9. Cotton twist & Yarn (Foreign) . . .	,,	60	4		11	4,350	884
10 Cotton twist & Yarn (Indian) . . .	,,	13,016	3,808	8,898	9 457	48,406	19,643
11 Cotton piece goods (Foreign in bales) .	,,		1	1,466	37		
12 Cotton piece goods (Foreign in boxes) .	,,	4				39	153
13 Cotton piece goods (Indian in bales) .	,,	1,92,970	53,832	2,96,987	57,974		

TABLE 16—*Contd*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
14 Cotton piece goods (Indian in boxes)	Quintal	10,580	70			1,04,158	10,515
15 Dyes & Tans Myrobalanes	,,	731	35	870	70	2,867	35
16 Fruit (Dried)	,,	50,243	44,047	26,723	23 ,526	60,188	2,604
17 Gram & Gram product	,,	64,455	49,572	74,624	2,49,183	1,48,183	11,790
18 Glass	,,	1,85,728	10,655	2,19,536	12,575	1,86,853	29,459
19 Pulses (other than gram)	,,	1,16,487	31,299	1,72,988	4,12,912	4,89,639	71,811
20 Maize	,,	8,980	2,924	46,617	5,442	6,391	2,813
21 Jawar	,,	27,813	6,001	34,481	10,404	1,686	440
22 Bajra	,,	13,600	16,964	3,172	36,445	519	224
23 Millets (Excluding Jawar & Bajra)	,,	111	..		221	56,033	4
24 Rice in husk	,,	667	241	3,949	94	65,220	660
25. Rice not in husk	,,	1,83,919	24,105	2,96,414	6,702	2,89,639	55,912
26 Wheat	,,	6,85,559	20,920	26,67,629	4,32,909	30,57,240	57,402
27. Wheat flour	,,	1,42,163	5,598	5,695	5,653	36,326	3,746
28. Grain pulses & flour (Other sorts)	,,	1,18,290	40,573	58,930	49,091	1,31,258	57,558
29 Hemp & Other Indian fibres (excluding jute)	,,	1,901	278	2,345	1,457	9,419	1,773

TABLE 16—*Contd.*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
30 Hides—raw .	Quintal	4,366	1,595	1,391	777	2,227	16,593
31. Skin—raw . .	,,	5,647	31,984	1,536	38,603	1,008	47,206
32 Hides & Skins (Tanned & leather)	,,	2,265	1,366	2,720	904	7,622	15,179
33. Jute raw (loose) . .	,,	142	56	15	48	178	68
34 Jute raw (pucca bales) . .	,,	564	12	1		9,456	418
35 Gunny bags & cloth	,,	5,21,201	42,048	2,07,716	19,889	35,581	10,868
36 Iron & Steel bars	,,	7,08,601	1,39,201	13,52,227	5,13,233	27,72,455	6,83,917
37 Lac & Shellac .	,,	217	15	661	102	9,257	808
38. Manganese ore . .	,,	43	26	929		888	7
39 Oil cakes (castor cake) . . .	,,	2,716		803		2,948	1,007
40 Oil Cakes (others) . . .	,,	1,06,188	4,369	1,21,975	7,999	1,83,634	16,433
41 Oil (Kerosene) . . .	,,	1,51,642	7,558	4,55,208	91,741	1,82,192	15,453
42. Vegetable Oils (castor) . .	,,	3,698	230	2,233	218	28,531	75
43. Vegetagle oils (coconut)	.	8,169	783	3,175	1,498	8,107	159
44. Vegetable oils (groundnut) .	,,	3,23,925	9,843	4,62,895	8,169	3,50,563	859
45 Vegetable oils (others) . . .	,,	1,654	50,074	36,329	34,996	1,47,359	89,551
46. Oil seeds (castor)	,,	270	89		2	2,936	9

TABLE 16—*Contd*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
47 Oild seeds (cotton)	Quintal	8,972	5,148	21,491	1,503	23,132	112
48 Oils seeds (ground nut)	,,	20,453	502	7,429	79	2,381	160
49 Oild seeds (Linseed)	,,	2,601	994	3,192	36	2,362	47
50 Oild seeds (Rape & Mustard)	,	13,825	27,205	48 103	4,455	8,551	25,962
51 Oilseeds (Jinjili) . . .	,,	24,751	911	21,172	268	49,334	2,707
52 Ghee .	,,	2,926	219	1,997	731	5,649	9,254
53 Rubber (raw) .	,	136	3	1,727	72	16,831	645
54 Salt	,	2,19 173	991	3,40,327	1,390	4,69,085	1,701
55 Sugar (excluding khandsari)	,,	7,38 703	76 128	27,593	1,11,072	5,298	1,561
56 Khandsari (Sugar)	,,	37,415	7,153	2,577	17,964	3,348	3,847
57 Gur, Jaggery and Gur Shakkar	,,	14,142	2,71,530	1,735	5,63,701	725	2,71,192
58 Sugar (Molasses etc)	,,	3,538	1,014	9,736	234	8,951	689
59 Tea	,,	21,138	3,901	7,237	774	18,048	213
60 Tobacco (raw)	,,	4,029	622	3,15,778	134	10,473	5,166
61. Wood & Timber (teak)	,,	8,357	29	7,843	730	19,948	290
62 Wood & Timber	,,	4,34,888	13,426	1,94,671	29,305	81,260	11,299
63 Wool (raw) .	,,	12 705	32 884	5,878	18 552	9,931	5,559

sugar and jaggery, and tea and wool. The decrease in imports of coarse grain and of wheat flour was more than compensated by the increase in import of wheat, in the case of sugar, tea and raw wool, there was a reduction only in the 'entreport' trade indicating direct export to consuming areas which were receiving it via Delhi. In the case of exports, all these commodities record corresponding reduction, excepting raw skins. Additionally, decrease in exports corresponded by an increase in imports, is shown by horses, ponies and mules, bones, cement, cotton piece goods, dry fruits, gram and gram products, manganese ore, vegetable oils, sugar molasses and wool fibres. All these decreases in volume of imports and exports of specified commodities were quantitatively less significant than the increase recorded by the remaining commodities. The volume of trade had increased manifold in the course of these twelve years. This is indicated by the total volume of trade expressed in terms of value at fixed 1966-67 prices of some 32 of these commodities for which these values could be computed on the basis of wholesale prices.

TABLE 17

Aggregate value of trade in selected commodities at fixed 1966-67 prices

(Lakhs of Rupees)

Year	Imports	Exports	Net balance
1955-56	1,454	248	1,206
1959-60	2,475	808	1,667
1966-67	4,327	920	3,407

The above figures relate only to about half the volume of trade. They are quoted only to indicate that the quantum of imports had increased between 1955-56 and 1966-67 by nearly 200 per cent and that of exports, by 270 per cent, and the total volume of trade, by 209 per cent. The portion of imports retained by the Delhi metropolis too had nearly trebled in the course of this period. This striking expansion in the volume of trade is adequately explained by the rapid growth of Delhi's population and the progressively more important role that it has assumed in the programme of social and economic development of the country as a whole as its capital city.

Agricultural Marketing

The importance of assuring the agriculturist an equitable return for the produce that he brings to the market hardly needs any emphasis The setting up of the regulated markets is an important step in this regard The Royal Commission on Agriculture in India (1928) observed "Cultivator suffers from many handicaps, to begin with he is illiterate and in general ignorant of prevailing prices in the markets, especially in regard to commercial crops The most hopeful solution of the cultivator's marketing difficulties seems to lie in the improvement of communication and the establishment of regulated markets must form an essential part of any ordered plan of agricultural development in this country The Bombay Act is, however, definitely limited to cotton markets and the bulk of transactions in the Berar market is also in that crop We consider that the system can conveniently be extended to other crops and, with a view to avoiding difficulties, would suggest that regulated markets should only be established under provisional legislation The Planning Commission endorsed the recommendations of the Royal Commission and recommended the adoption of Agriculture Produce Act by all States Keeping their recommendations in view, the Delhi Administration issued a notification dated the 25th July, 1957 under Section 2 of the Union Territories Law (Act) 1950 extending the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act, 1939 to the Union Territory of Delhi Rules under this Act were finally promulgated on 20th August, 1959

It was decided to cover three mandis of Najafgarh, Narela and Zakhira Under the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act 1939 as extended to Delhi a marketing committee was set up at Najafgarh in 1959 which framed its byelaws Similar committees were also set up for the Narela and Zakhira markets The traders of Najafgarh and Narela however, had not in the initial stages reacted favourably to this scheme and even took recourse to law resulting in delaying the implementation of the scheme

The regulated markets are managed by the market committees on which producers, traders, the Government and local bodies are represented In the market committees, the producers are in majority and the chairman is always an agriculturist The committees are responsible for the enforcement of fair trading practices licensing of market functionaries, deduction of authorised market charges and enforcement of standard weights These committees are also required to maintain market yards, provide facilities for parking carts, rest houses for farmers, canteens, godowns

and sheds for auctioning the produce. The Fourth Plan proposed to extend the operation of this Act to cover some eight markets by 1974 The markets which are likely to come under the purview of the Act are the Subzimandi, Jama Masjid fish and eggs market, Phool ki Mandi, hides and skins market in Sadar Bazar and the grain market at Shahdara. The Fourth Plan proposed four schemes in order to improve the market mechanism relating to agricultural produce The total outlay on these schemes is Rs 4,12,300 of which Rs 1 09,500 will be spent on the regulation of market and market practices, Rs. 2,30,800 on the promotion of grading of agricultural commodities for consumers, Rs 22 000 on the training of personnel in agricultural marketing, and Rs 50,000 on an integrated scheme for the improvement of market intelligence

The Plan's further emphasis is on promoting cooperative marketing Noting that there were in 1967-68 five agricultural marketing societies which covered all the important mandis, with a membership of 2,251 as against that of only 19 in 1961, the Plan envisages no further need to organise such societies The Plan's proposal is to reduce the number from five to four The business handled by these societies, which will continue to cover all the rural mandis, is envisaged to increase from Rs 1 6 million in 1967-68 to Rs 2 3 million in 1973-74

It is also notable that a federation under the name of Delhi State Cooperative Vegetable and Fruit Growers Marketing Federation was established in 1947 to help the vegetable growers of Delhi in the marketing of their produce Its membership has increased from 63 in 1955-56 to 175 in 1967-68 The Federation has been experiencing financial stringency and also lacks suitable accommodation The Government came to its rescue in 1967-68 and allotted a plot on temporary basis for conducting its business and also made a contribution of Rs 10,000 to its share capital

Wholesale And Retail Trade Centres

The importance of Delhi as a trading centre has progressively increased during the present century, thanks to its becoming an important transport mode in the net-work of railways and national highways, which links it with all the parts of the country It is undoubtedly the largest trading centre in the whole of Northern India comprising the Delhi Territory, Uttar Pradesh, Northern Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh, Haryana, Punjab, Jammu and Kashmir, and Himachal Pradesh The wholesale

markets are all located in the vicinity of the Delhi railway station—Chandni Chowk, Khari Baoli and Sadar Bazar—all within a radius of less than a mile from the railway station, have functioned as the central business district of Delhi and they will continue to do so over foreseeable future In fact all wholesaling is concentrated here The district has already extended into Nai Sarak Chawri Bazar, Hauz Qazi Faiz Bazar, Naya Bazar, Ajmeri Gate and Asaf Ali Road in the South and to Kashmire Gate in the North All along these streets, the frontages are occupied by the retail shops and the wholesale trading is carried on in the 'Katras and 'Kuchas' lying more inward The business district as a whole is characterized not only by acute congestion but also by multiplicity of land uses including trading, residence and even smallscale manufacturing and repair works This has created an acute problem of redevelopment aimed at reordering the functions and reducing the density Accordingly, the Delhi Master Plan has made the following proposals, which have already been taken up for implementation

1 *Fruit and vegetable markets* The market for wholesaling of fruits and vegetables may be reconstructed in due course at the present Subzimandi site and the retail trade removed to retail markets all over the city Another site for wholesale business in fruits and vegetables should be located near the Daya Basti railway station in Sarai Rohilla A third is recommended near Okhla railway station

2 *Food grains market* Offices of wholesale dealers in food grains may continue on the Shradhanand Marg and in Naya Bazar But some of these may also be located in the Teliwara area when it is properly re-developed However storage of food grains should take place only in areas earmarked for the purpose in the Plan Retail traders in food grains may continue in Naya Bazar and Shradhanand Marg

3 *Fodder market* This is retained near Daya Basti on Najafgarh Road

4 *Cloth market* Wholesaling of this commodity must be rehoused in a modernized market in about a 10-acre site west of Church Mission Road Then, some of the trade now housed in katras elsewhere in and around Chandni Chowk can also be accommodated here.

5. *Bicycle market* Wholesaling in this commodity now located in the Jama Masjid area should be relocated in the Jhandewalan commercial area The present site should be cleared of this trade and the road access between Chandni Chowk and Jama Masjid improved.

6 *Dry fruit market:* This will continue in its present location of Church Mission Road and may be adequately enlarged.

7 *Hosiery and general market* This will continue in Sadar Bazar—Old Bahadurgarh Road It needs improvement and floor space has to be substantially increased for the expansion of the wholesale trade.

Land allocation for wholesale markets is as follows·

Wholesale Market*	Area
Fruit and vegetable	35
Food grain	15
Cloth	10
Dry fruit	2
Hosiery and general	61
Fodder	6
TOTAL	129

*The bicycle wholesale amarket has no been shown separately as a wholesale commercial market in the Plan but forms part of the commercial area in Jhandewalan.

We must add that the Master Plan has dealt with proper location of both wholesale and retail trade in a comprehensive manner and has identified locations for the entire trading activity of the metropolis It has proposed extension of the Connaught Place commercial area of New Delhi up to Tolstoy Marg toward the east The Plan envisages that the redevelopment of the district will be undertaken on the basis of an overall detailed plan in order to ensure adequate traffic circulation, parking, water, drainage, power and other facilities It further proposes to link this area in its northern side to Asaf Ali Road market of the old

city through the Minto and Ranjit roads The plan further envisages expansion of the two major sub-central business districts of Karol Bagh and Shahdara

The programme of redevelopment of the commercial activity that is in the initial stages of implementation as a part of the Master Plan is designed to decentralise the activity in 15 district centres so placed as to cover the entire metropolis These will provide within easy travelling distance all the facilities for every 1 5 to 2 5 lakhs of population These are composite centres and will have retail shopping, general business, commercial and professional offices, forwarding and booking and local Government offices, cinemas restaurants and other places of entertainment They will have work-cum-industrial centres flatted with small-scale and light manufacturing, repair shops and service industries Some of the district centres will also have Central Government offices All these will have to be part of a phased development according to detailed plans which will also take care of all kinds of transport facilities Hospitals, colleges and parks are also planned in proximity to these district centres so that each district is self-contained Thirteen sub-district centres are also planned Some of them are existing at present like Gole Market Khan Market etc which are mostly retail in character and serve the day to-day needs of the people In outlying areas these are located near railway stations and road crossings which are natural sites for the growth of such activity The land allocation for central and sub-central business districts, districts and sub-district centres is given below

TABLE 18

Central business districts

Location	Area
In Old City	114
Asaf Ali Road, Minto Road and Ranjit Singh Road	4
Connaught Place and extension including Janpath	198
Parliament Street	16
Indraprastha Estate	12
TOTAL	344

TABLE 18A

Sub-Central business districts

Location	Area
Karol Bagh	42
*Shahdara	157
	199

*Include wholesale and transport facilities.

TABLE 18B

District Centres

	Location	Commercial including service industries (acres)	Work-cum-industrial centres (flatted) (acres)	Govt. Offices (acres)	Total (acres)
1	Pusa Road	23			23
2	Khyber Pass . .	16	5	..	21
3	Shahdara (North Bund Area) . .	16	.		16
4	Loni Road (North Shahdara) . .	32			32
5	Dilshad (Shahdara) . . .	14	.	..	14
6	South Shahdara	32	.		32
7	Kalkaji	57	15	10	82
8	Malviya Nagar	48	..	.	48
9	1100 acres Development Scheme (South of Ring Road)	38	10	10	58
10	West Delhi, Ring Road, (Najafgarh Road)	31	10	15	56
11	New Jail area (Najafgarh Road) .	37		.	37
12	Nangloi Area (South of Rohtak Road)	32	—	—	32
13	Shakurbasti area	40	..	—	40
14	Wazirpur area (Ring Road) . .	50	.	25	75
15	Shalimar Garden area . . .	25			25
		491	40	60	591

An important point worthy of notice is that the Master Plan and the D D A authorities have not only made proposals on paper but have tried to implement their proposals also The following are some of the active steps taken by these authorities for the promotion of trading activities in Delhi A new wholesale subzimandi at a cost of about Rs 70 lakhs has been developed at Azadpur Likewise a big cycle market is being constructed at Jhandewalan at a cost of about Rs 1½ crores Further, to meet the increasing demand of commercial plots and to relieve the pressure on the existing congested markets, new and modern shopping centres are being developed in Kalkaji and Pusa Road

Kalkaji District centre is one of the most important district centres and in fact first district centre to be taken up to decentralise commercial centre activity at district level of the adjacent localities The commercial centre has been bifurcated from the areas earmarked for Government office buildings, fire station, bus terminus etc One of the notable features of this district centre is the segregation of the vehicular and pedestrian traffic The shops have been kept facing inside and towards each other with space for movement of pedestrian traffic in front of them

The Master Plan has enlarged the areas of the exising industries at Okhla, Najafgarn Road and Rohtak Road

Trading Fairs

As Delhi developed into a trading centre, the importance of the traditional type of trading through fairs has progressively decreased The rural areas are served by regular markets of the towns of Narela, Najafgarh Mehrauli and Shahdara In all these places there are both wholesale and retail mandis where the agriculturists from the surrounding villages sell their produce and buy their requirements of daily life as well as the inputs they need for carrying on their occupation of farming As a remnant of the old system of trading fairs a cattle fair has, however, continued This is organised six times a year in Nangloi three times in Najafgarh and two times in Alipur There, the traders collect to buy and sell their cattle which includes the famous Haryana breed of cows and buffaloes The fair is held for four days each time at each of above places and is attended on the average by over 10,000 persons

State Trading Corporation of India

Registered as a private limited company under the Indian Companies Act, 1956, on the 18th May, 1956 the Corporation has its headquarters and registered office at New Delhi The

authorised share capital of the Corporation is Rs. 5 crores divided into 5 hundred thousand shares of Rs. 100 each and the issued capital is Rs. 2 crores. All the shares except two which are held by the Managing Director and an officer in the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, are owned by the President of India The objectives for which this company was established, as laid down in the Memorandum of Association, are (i) to organise and effect exports from, and imports into, India of all such goods and commodities as may be determined by the Company from time to time and to undertake the purchase, sale and transport of, and general trade in such goods and commodities in India or anywhere else in the world, (ii) to acquire and undertake the whole or any part of the business, property and liabilities of any person or company and to improve, manage develop, grant rights or privileges in respect of, or otherwise deal with, all or any of the property and rights of such persons or company; (iii) to subscribe for take, or otherwise acquire and hold shares, stocks, debentures or other securities of any other company; (iv) to give guarantees and indemnities for the performance of contracts in which the Corporation is interested, and (v) to do all such other things as are incidental or conducive to the attainment of the above objects It would thus be retained that the principal aim for setting up the Corporation has been to promote India's exports to foreign countries and fill up the gap in the country's foreign trade structure

The net profit of the Corporation worked out to Rs 3 3 million in 1956-57, Rs 10 6 million in 1957-58 and Rs 12 8 million in 1958-59 The Corporation paid a divident of six per cent on the paid-up share capital in 1956-57 and seven per cent in 1957-58, as well as in 1958-59

Cooperative Institutions In Trade

The important agencies functioning in the Cooperative Sector, which deal in trade are the Food Corporation of India, the Cooperative Store Ltd (Super Bazars), Delhi Consumers Cooperative Wholesale Store Ltd , Hindustan Food Cooperatives Ltd. and Central Government Employees Consumers Cooperatives besides a chain of fair price shops and Consumers Cooperative Stores scattered throughout the Union Territory.

The Cooperative Store Ltd. (Super Bazar)

The first Government sponsored Super Bazar started functioning in Delhi on 15th July, 1966. The share capital of the cooperative store is Rs 69,69,550 in which Government share amount to Rs

66,76,000 The store has two large branches at I.N.A., Safdarjang and the other at Patel Nagar It has five mini branches at Willingdon, Safdarjang and Irwin Hospital, Vasant Vihar and at Jawahar Lal Nehru University

The following is the statement of sales since 1966

Period (from July to June)	Sales in lakhs of Rupees
1966-67	478 28
1967-68	508 78
1968-69	443 40
1969-70	391 65
1970-71	362 66
1971-72	371 67

Trade Associations

With the growth of trade and industry in Delhi businessmen and industrialists have tended to organise themselves into associations for regulating trade practices between members in the same type of business, promote business interests common to their members, and disseminate commercial intelligence among them Since Independence, there has been a tendency on the part of mercantile associations with all-India membership, to have their head-offices in Delhi In fact their apex body, the Indian Federation of Chambers of Commerce and Industry, has its head-office in Delhi and it acts as a powerful lobby watching the interests of the business community, or the private sector in the Parliament and with the Central Government Several of the associations of Delhi businessmen as well as the associations having an all-India Character with their offices in Delhi or New Delhi, are members of this Federation Important among these associations operating in or from Delhi are the following

1 The Delhi Hindustani Mercantile Association, 641/1213, Chandni Chowk, Delhi-6.
2 The Delhi Fents Mercantile Association, 1090, Kucha Natwan, Chandni Chowk, Delhi-6
3 The Federation of Sadar Bazar Trade Association, 655, Street No 11 Sadar Bazar, Delhi
4 The United Chamber of Trade Association, Katra Rathi, Nai Sarak, Delhi
5 The Federation of Biscuit Manufacturers Association, 17, Alipur Road, Delhi

6 All India Air Conditioning and Refrigeration Association, Punjab House, M-13, Connaught Place, New Delhi.
7. The Agricultural Machinery Dealers and Manufacturers Association of India, C-40, South Extension II, New Delhi-3
8 The Delhi Factory Owners' Federation, Phelps Building, 9-A, Connaught Place, New Delhi-1
9 The Federation of Hotel & Restaurant Association of India, 15-A, Nizamuddin West, New Delhi-14
10 The Federation of Indian Mineral Industries, 7, New Delhi, South Extension Part I, New Delhi-3
11 The Federation of Plywood & Panel Industries, 70-Golf Links, New Delhi-3
12 The Non-Ferrous Fittings Manufacturers Association of India, A-6, New Delhi South Extension, Part-II, New Delhi-3
13 The Northern India Cotton Textile Mills Association, Phelps Building, 9-A, Connaught Place, New Delhi-1
14 The Punjab, Haryana & Delhi Chamber of Commerce and Industry, Phelps Building, 9-A Connaught Place, New Delhi-1
15 The Roller Flour Miller's Federation of India, 488, Mathura Road, Jangpura, New Delhi-14

The first four of these comprise Delhi business men only The oldest among them is the Delhi Hindustani Mercantile Association which was registered in 1946 There are several other associations which are not affiliated to the Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry Important among them are the New Delhi Shopkeepers Union, Fruit and Vegetable Merchants Union, Delhi Pharmacists Union and Delhi Grain Merchants Association

The trade union activity in Delhi has been of long standing There are several kinds of trade unions, some are limited to one establishment, some cover all establishments in a single industry, and some comprise members drawn from several industries but having the same type of job The union activity has been subjected to a continual process of organization and reorganization, new unions are formed to replace the existing and often several of the existing ones are amalgamated into a new union Delhi being the hub of national political activity all the political parties have continued to participate in the union activity.

Weights and Measures

The Orissa Weights and Measures Act, 1943, with certain modifications in the schedule has been in force in Delhi since October, 1952 Under the Act, all weights, measures, weighing and measuring instruments used by local traders require verification and stamping at least once in every two years and those used by factories registered under the Factories Act, 1948, require verification at least once a year These provisions help in making up the losses and defects in weights and measures that take place during the normal wear and tear and keep a check on the unhealthy practice of using false weights With the decision of the Government of India to adopt uniform system of weights and measures in the country, the Delhi Administration brought into force with effect from 1st April, 1959, the Rajasthan Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Act, 1959, based on the metric system Under the law, a complete changeover to the metric system of weights and measures had to be brought about by the 1st of October 1960 The oil companies also switched over to the use of capacity measures in metric units (litres) from 1st of April 1960 By August, 1960, the Delhi Sarafa Association, Kirana Committee, Khari Baoli, Delhi, and Food Grain Merchants Association, Naya Bazar, Delhi, had completely switched over to the metric weights The system of metric weights and measures is thus prevalent in the entire Union Territory of Delhi since August, 1960

CHAPTER VII

COMMUNICATION

Delhi's location as a capital region and international centre has indeed given it a distinct character and acted as a catalytic agent for a quick development of various modes of transport and communications from very ancient times Lying on the way to the heartland of India it has witnessed a continuous movement of immigrants from the north-western region, spilling over the vast stretches of land watered by the two river systems—Ganga and Yamuna Delhi was more than a transit camp to many of these migrants It offered them a permanent place of residence and provided a vital link of communication between the Indus valley and the Gangetic plains The observation made in the Draft Master Plan for Delhi in 1960 "that from a transport standpoint, Delhi constitutes a centre of international importance, and is also a metropolitan regional centre for a considerable portion of North-West India and an urbanised area requiring inter-community movement of both persons and goods" would have been almost equally valid if it was made thousands of years ago

Mobility being a *sine qua non* of transport, it is easy to visualise the important part played by the various modes of conveyance used by the vast multitude of people who lived, worked or moved in this metropolitan area throughout the ages. The passage of years has undoubtedly washed away the delible marks of the early transport system which obtained in Delhi The elephants, cavalry and chariots no longer kick up clouds of dust on the metalled roads of Delhi today where the automobiles of latest design speed away in the twinkling of an eye. The camels, mules and bullocks have fallen into disuse, *doolies* and palanquins so often mentioned as modes of conveyance even in the early decades of the present century have become things of the past while the *tongas* and *rehras*, the remnants of the past are being driven out of roads The evolution of the transport and communication system constitutes an essential factor in Delhi's steady march to modernity

Early Growth

Indraprastha, the legendary capital of the Pandavas, was connected by road with many important towns situated in the belt stretching from the north-west to the Ganges delta in the

Bay of Bengal. The existence of a highway is also suggested by the recent discovery (23rd March, 1966) of a minor rock edict of Asoka in South Delhi at a site almost in alignment with other ancient sites in the vicinity stretching from Purana Qila to Tilpat—all of them situated on the banks of the Yamuna. The *Mahabharata* describes in detail the movement of the *Chaturangani Senas* (four-limbed army-infantry, cavalry chariots and elephants) swinging forward from all directions to the battlefield at Kurukshetra. For civilian use various beasts of burden, animal-driven vehicles, *palkis* and *doolies* were probably used. With the Yamuna flowing by, the possibility of water transport like boats ferries, rafts and skins cannot be ruled out.

As time rolled on, Delhi began to have important road links with Taxila in the north-west, Kurukshetra in the plains of the Punjab, Hastinapur near Meerut Kausambi on the bank of the Yamuna near Allahabad and Kasi, the modern Varanasi. Active trade and commerce between these towns laid the foundation of the northern trunk route running across the sub-continent from the north-west to the east. During the Mauryan period the route was further developed and numerous off-shoots came into existence. The main route ran from the Ganges delta to Kausambi via Patliputra and Varanasi. From Kausambi the route went along the Yamuna until it reached Indraprastha across the plains of Mathura. It moved further north passed Kurukshetra and crossed the rivers of the Punjab on its way to Sialkot and Taxila.

Strabo, the geographer states that both Eratosthenes and Megasthenes made their computation of the length of India from east to west from the register of stages on this royal road, described in the *Arthashastra* as 'Raj Marg' or the King's Highway. One branch of this road started from Mathura and crossed the Rajasthan. Another branch went to the port of Patala near the mouth of the Indus. A third one branched off from the main trunk route at Rajagriha and passed through Sravasti, Ahichhatra and Delhi before rejoining the main route at Kurukshetra. As an important centre of Hindu empire Delhi's transport system flourished till the end of the 12th century when with the defeat of Prithvi Raj Chauhan, it passed into the hands of Muslim conquerors. But Delhi's importance as the never centre of the country could not be ignored by the Muslims who made it the capital of their empire until it crumbled in the eighteenth century. The vicissitudes of fortune which Delhi

faced during this long period when power changed hands, invasions took place at frequent intervals and the capital city changed its sites several times did not affect the over-all transport position. The massive and magnificent buildings constructed at this time bear evidence to the bee-like transport activity that must have been necessitated in the collection of materials and construction of these huge structures. Ibn Batuta, who visited Delhi in the 14th century A D, has left an interesting account of his travels which testify to the great care bestowed on the construction of the roads and its maintenance Delhi was connected by road with Kanauj, Gwalior, Dhar, Amroha and Daulatabad Most of these roads were provided with tree plantations, rest houses, postal stations and steep wells for supply of water to the travellers The road from Delhi to Daulatabad was bordered with willow trees in such a manner that "a man going along it imagines he is walking through a garden"

Sher Shah laid the longest road which ran from Sonargaon to the Indus about *500 Kos* in length Delhi occupied an important link in this historic Grand Trunk Road Shahjahan, the fifth Mughal ruler, built an entirely new city on the banks of the Yamuna and named it Shahjahanabad, which could be approached from north west and south by several gate-ways, named after distant cities Regular roads existed approaching there gates connecting Delhi with these cities Some of the gates facing the Yamuna suggest some sort of river transport although it would not be unreasonable to think that the gates facing the river were intended mainly to facilitate escape during emergencies. The city of Shahjahanabad, as laid out had wide roads and met the community requirements of the time The streets in residential areas were kept narrow to protect the people on the street from the scorching summer sun and biting winds of the winter

The *Chahar Gulshan*, written in the middle of the eighteenth century, describes the main roads of Mughal India and shows Delhi's pivotal position in the net-work of roads which ran throughout the country Among the roads mainly traced are Agra-Delhi, Delhi-Lahore, Delhi-Ajmer, Delhi Bareilly-Varanasi-Patna and Delhi-Kot Nineteen other highways, though not originating from Delhi, enabled the city to maintain its communication with a large number of towns including Lahore, Gujrat Attock, Kabul, Ghazni, Kandhar Srinagar, Multan, Allahabad, Bijapur, Ujjain, Aurangabad, Golkunda, Asir, Hindia, Dholpur and Ahmedabad.

Jean Baptist Tavernier, whose travels in India extended from 1640 to 1667 A D, usually journeyed in a carriage drawn by trotting bullocks He considered travel in India quite as comfortable as in Europe Among other routes in use in the Mughal period, he refers to the Grand Trunk Road going through Agra, Sasseram, Patna and Dacca Captain Leopold Van Orlick travelled by dawk (name given to travel in a palanquin) which he considered to be the usual mode of travelling in India in the 19th century He engaged eight bearers to carry his palanquin and six for the *doolie* of his attendant.

The transport system developed by the Mughals was made of much use of by the East India Company in its early days Lord William Bentinck took steps during 1830-35 to have a permanent trunk road from Calcutta to Delhi, and further to the north-west frontiers of the time. It took 20 years to complete the construction of the road up to Karnal, about 75 miles (120 kms) north of Delhi or nearly 1,000 miles (1 600 km) from Calcutta

In the latter half of the 19th century Delhi saw the coming of the railways and postal services Metalled roads were built to link various parts of the city Goods and commodities started coming in from different places and Delhi once again became one of the largest commercial and cultural centres of north and north-western India

Early 20th Century

The Punjab Gazetteers (1912) Volume V 'A' gives the following statistics relating to communication in Delhi District

Communications	Miles
Railways	109 (approx 175 Kms)
Metalled Roads	127 (,, 204 ,,)
Unmetalled Roads (Approx) .	300 (,, 480 ,,)
Navigable Canals . .	68 (,, 109 ,,)
Rivers .	72 (,, 115 ,,)

In 1912, as many as six railway companies were exercising their joint rights over Delhi station which was then the largest junction in northern India Excluding a few cross roads the metalled roads of Delhi district in 1912 were the following

1. The Grand Trunk from Delhi towards Karnal	38 miles	(approx	61	Kms.)
2. The Delhi-Rohtak Road . .	16 ,,	(,,	26	,,)
3. The Delhi-Gurgaon Road .	18 ,,	(,,	29	,,)
4. The Delhi-Agra Road . .	32 ,,	(,,	51	,,)

Metalled cross-roads connected Safdarjang with Humayun's tomb and Mehrauli with Tughluqabad station in addition to the Sonepat — Kharkhauda (Rohtak) Road which was metalled in 1912

Unmetalled roads were legion radiating from the more important marks such as Sonepat, Bawana, Najafgarh, Mehrauli and Ballabhgarh The canal banks also provided unmetalled roads but carts were not allowed to travel

Between 1937-39

The Delhi Transport Enquiry Committee, which submitted a report in 1939 recommending the arrangements for public transport best suited to the Delhi urban area, took note of the transport facilities obtaining at that time There were 193 motor taxi cabs registered in Delhi including 35 vehicles of a superior type attached to certain hotels The motor cab catered only "for a very small moneyed section of the Delhi public" The main form of privately owned transport available to the Delhi public was one-horse tongas There were 2,735 tongas licensed to ply for hire in the urban area A person living near the Jama Masjid and wishing to go to Connaught Place could have the choice of going by tongas all the way and in case the tongas were full "he would probably pay (if skilful in bargaining) 5 pice for his seat in point of fact the practical route for a single passenger from Jama Masjid to Connaught Circus is by tram and tonga for 5 pice"

Tramways

In late thirties public transport within the Delhi urban area as distinguished from privately owned transport was provided solely by the Delhi Electric Supply and Traction Company which included electrically propelled trams running on fixed rails, trolly buses propelled by electricity and petrol engine motor buses running between the Civil Lines Notified Area, Delhi City and New Delhi

Tramcars were put on the road in Delhi on June 2, 1908, by Delhi Electric Tramways Lighting Company which was re-christened in 1928 as Delhi Electric Supply and Traction Company Limited until the establishment of the Imperial Capital at Delhi and development of New Delhi as a residential quarters The tramway, running on routes originally scheduled in 1906, adequately met all normal demands of the population of the area bounded by the city wall known as Delhi City The "local authority" took over the tramways on March 2, 1947, and handed it over to the Delhi Central Electric Power Authority, a registered company under the administrative control of the Central Ministry of Irrigation and Power Transferred to Delhi Road Transport Authority on April 1, 1951, the tramways went to the Delhi Road Transport Authority on April 7, 1958 By this time it became an obsolete transport system in Old Delhi which ran approximately five miles from Jama Masjid through Chandni Chowk and Naya Bazar to Subzimandi In 1958-59, the fleet consisted of 12 tramcars and two trolley buses It had an average speed of only three miles per hour and the volume of passengers carried steadily declined to about 15,000 per day The equipment was worn out and could be maintained only by "cannibalizing parts from old buses" The stage of complete elimination was reached in November, 1962

Independence And After

When the British Government shifted its capital from Calcutta to Delhi in 1912, it was thought that New Delhi would not grow beyond the Safdarjang airport and population would not exceed 65,000 The two adjacent cities — Delhi and New Delhi — have since then developed separately instead of growing into one unit Even today the main connecting road between Delhi and New Delhi is through the Delhi Gate, known as Netaji Subhash Marg — Elgin Road and Lothian Road

Delhi was not at all prepared for the sudden and unprecedented influx of population following the partition More than half a million refugees moved into Delhi creating numerous problems A number of rehabilitation colonies sprang up all around the city with most inadequate road connections, little transport facilities and marginal standard of public utilities

A city of moderate size up to 1912, Delhi has now emerged as the third largest city of India after Greater Bombay and Calcutta and is growing at a faster rate than any other large metropolis in the country The population, which was four lakhs

in 1912, has exceeded 40 lakhs in 1971 and according to the quick estimates made by the office of the Registrar General of India, the population is expected to be 67 lakhs in 1981. With the phenomenal increase of population and land development activities there is an evergrowing problem of transportation despite the efforts of the authorities to create additional transport facilities from time to time

Road Transport

The Grand Trunk Road, connecting north-west India and the Ganges valley, crosses the Yamuna river near Delhi on the lower level of the railway bridge between the Red Fort and Shahdara The utility of the road has been greatly diminished by encroachments and inter-section congestion It also does not provide capacity for through traffic between the north — west outskirts of Delhi and the Red Fort

The Delhi Urban area in the meanwhile, has become a focal point of five National Highways described below

(1) National Highway No 1	Delhi—Panipat—Ambala—Jullundur—Amritsar
(2) National Highway No 2	Delhi—Mathura- Agra—Kanpur—Allahabad – Varanasi—Mohanbari—Calcutta
(3) National Highway No 8 .	Delhi—Gurgaon—Jaipur—Ajmer—Udaipur—Ahmedabad—Baroda—Bombay
(4) National High way No 10 . .	Delhi—Rohtak
(5) National Highway No 24	Delhi—Luckrow

These highways have been serving Delhi for a long time as arteries of trade and commerce Changes in the modes of conveyances used on these roads have added considerably to the volume of traffic in goods and passengers Trucks, buses, taxis, motor cars and motor cycles have now assumed a far greater importance as compared to the slow moving horse-carts, bullock carts, carts driven by camels, litters borne on the shoulders of men and hand-pulled cycle-rickshaws

In order to avoid major congestion centres in the densely build areas of the city, the Delhi Master Plan provides an outer Ring Road encircling the urbanised area of the city The function of the outer Ring Road would be primarily to by-pass through road-traffic while the inner Ring Road serves the fast

moving traffic en route between local origin and destination to circle the central congested area One section of the outer Ring Road, known as the National by-pass has already been completed Many links have now been provided connecting the inner Ring Road with various congested areas with the result that the Ring Road has now more or less degenerated into a local distributor

Delhi is connected by road with the important cities of India like Agra (204 kms) Ajmer (442 kms), Amritsar (456 kms) Bhopal (768 kms), Bombay (1,413 kms), Calcutta (1,435 kms), Chandigarh (246 kms), Hardwar (201 kms), Hyderabad (1,693 kms), Jaipur (306 kms), Kanpur (425 kms), Lucknow (492 kms), Madras (2,312 kms), Nagpur (1,076 kms), Simla (344 kms) Udaipur (729 kms) and Varanasi (750 kms)

Delhi is linked with the neighbouring towns by five roads — Najafgarh — Delhi Road, Narela — Delhi Road, Mehrauli — Delhi Road, Shahdara — Delhi Road, and Okhla — Delhi Road The Union Government has sanctioned the widening of two important highways in Rajasthan, one of which is new Jaipur — Delhi Road link

According to Delhi District Census Hand-book (1971) the villages in the Union Territory are easily accessable as a network of highways major roads and other roads criss-cross the rural area In all 49 villages are connected by rail and 195 villages by road There are only 98 villages which are connected by *kuchha* roads These *kuchha* roads are quite small in length and are in fact only approach roads to the main roads Almost all the villages in Delhi can be reached through Delhi Transport Corporation or private bus service Bullock carts and *rehras* frequently ply between the rural and urban areas, transporting the agricultural produce from villages to the urban market Tempo and trucks are also in frequent use A very large number of rural population uses cycles as a means of transport for coming to the city and back to their villages

City Roads

The limited access between Delhi and New Delhi is a basic factor in road traffic situation in Delhi New Delhi was originally planned as a capital centre with the system of roads radiating from Connaught Circus with little regard for highway connections with old Delhi The Delhi-Agra broad-gauge railway line dividing the two areas has only two road under-passes at

Minto Bridge and at Tilak Bridge Traffic jams occur at these two places because the two cities have now tended to merge under the impact of the sweeping changes taking place in the metropolitan area since August 1947 The Civil Lines, which was developed as a residential area, has poor street connections with the rest of the urban area As most of the traffic avoids the already congested Grand Trunk Road through Sabzimandi and Sadar Bazar, the main route for through movement is via Alipur Road, Kashmire Gate, Elgin Road and Netaji Subhash Marg

A net-work of roads covers Delhi-Old and New Old Delhi has five main roads—the Shradhanand Marg (G B —Naya Bazar Road), Shyama Pd Mukherjee Marg (Queens Road), Netaji Subhash Marg (Faiz Bazar) — Elgin—Lothian — Alipore Road, Chandni Chowk and Chawri Bazar Road Starting from Ajmeri Gate the Shradhanand — Naya Bazar Road ends at the Shyama Pd Mukherjee junction This road is of great importance because it accommodates the Delhi wholesale grain market The Shyama Pd Mukherjee Marg leads from Shradhanand—Naya Bazar junction to railway station West End The Netaji Subhash — Sham Nath Marg (Alipore Road) stretches from Kashmire Gate to the Mall Chandni Chowk links up Elgin Road junction to the Fatehpuri Masjid It is the busiest road in the old city Chawri Bazar runs inside the heart of the city as it starts from the Jama Masjid and Lal Kuan Road at the Hauz Kazi junction Three other important roads run to the north-west The Sadar Bazar Road runs from the junction at the railway bridge to Bara Hindu Rao the G T Road runs through the break of the ridge at Sabzimandi and the overbridge Deshbandhu Gupta Road — New Rohtak Road starts from Ajmeri Gate joins the Deshbandhu Gupta Road at Paharganj, proceeds further and meets the new Rohtak Road on the other side of the ridge

New Delhi roads are well-planned From Connaught Place, which is the focal point many roads radiate in different directions — Minto Road (running in the direction of Chandni Chowk) Chelmsford Avenue (running towards Sabzimandi), Panchkuin Road (running towards Karol Bagh), Shaheed Bhagat Singh Marg, (Lady Harding Avenue —running towards Gole Market), Baba Kharam Singh Road (Irwin Road — running towards Gole Post office and Willingdon Crescent), Parliament Street (running towards Parliament House), Janpath (running in a southern direction towards Rajpath), Kasturba Gandhi Marg (Curzon Road — running towards India Gate) and Barakhamba Road (running

towards Mandi House) Another focal point is Vijay Chowk (at the foot of the Central Secretariat) wherefrom roads branch off in diffrent directions, the most important of these being Rajpath, which leads via India Gate towards Mathura Road and Delhi Gate The Ring Road serves as an important by-pass for diverting traffic from congested areas Two lane-roads—one near Purana Qila and the other near Moti Bagh —were declared open in January 1961 The linking of Mathura Road with the Ring Road near Purana Qila and the inter-connection of Shantipath (in Chanakyapuri) and Gurgaon Road have helped considerably in easing traffic congestion on the main roads

The increasing volume of traffic has led to the widening of roads (where possible) and adoption of such traffic control devices as the removal of round-abouts, widening the crossings, building of channelizers and improving lighting arrangements Besides, the movement of heavy vehicles has been banned in the busy and congested areas to avert bottlenecks Such a ban has been extended to a few roads during peak hours Congested roads have been declared "one way" and through roads "no parking zones"

Length Of Highways/Roads

The total length of National Highways in the Union Territory of Delhi is 79 Kms The various local bodies had under their jurisdiction in 1969-70 about 7401 Kms of road in terms of 10 ft (roughly 3 05 meters) width of these N D M C maintained 1145 Kms, Delhi Cantt Board 111 0 Kms and D M C 5986 8 Kms of which 3959 0 Kms are black top, 241 40 Kms are Cement Concrete 1480 60 Kms are Waterbound Macadam and Paved and 305 8 Kms are other roads The Delhi Administration maintained 157 5 Kms

Road Conditions And Maintenance

The pattern of roads in two Delhis has been developed independently of each other In old Delhi the roads were originally laid primarily for pedestrians and animal-drawn carts These roads have varying width and shape so as to make slow movement of people and carts easy and natural Except the Civil Lines, the residential areas have very poor street connections With the passage of time and growth of automobile traffic many of these roads have reached and sometimes crossed the saturation point

The Planners of New Delhi had an integrated concept of the city Specific areas were marked and left for future development This has facilitated the widening of the roads to keep pace with the rapid growth in vehicular traffic Even so, the planners could not have foreseen the changes that have transformed the city altogether The city has spread out from its earlier administrative centre to its present sprawling shape.

Traffic Facilities

The parking demand has greatly increased with the rapid growth of vehicular traffic in Delhi and is particularly acute at centres such as Connaught Place, Chandni Chowk and Karol Bagh Trucks and goods vehicles come right into the city from outside thereby creating congestion as parking and loading and unloading facilities for trucks are not available Several traffic problems arise due to inadequate off-street parking facilities, parking lots and parking garages in the business centres

Level crossings at several places account for traffic hold-ups resulting in great irritation to vehicular traffic The level crossings at Rohtak Road, Lal Bahadur Shastri Marg and Sarai Rohilla* are serious bottlenecks According to a study, the level crossing at Rohtak Road remains closed on an average for nine hours in a day and the time for one single closure extends to as much as 45 minutes The Safdarjang level crossing* is also a similar bottleneck for vehicular movements to and from South Delhi The other level crossings are at Sewanagar, Shaktinagar, Shakur Basti Mehrauli-Mahipalpur Road and Jail Road on the Rewari Railway Line

The trans-Yamuna traffic also faces a problem of undue delay at the existing Yamuna bridge which serves as the main line between Delhi and Shahdara Plying of slow moving traffic on the bridge limits the capacity of the line to accommodate a fast-moving traffic

Improvement Programme

In 1969, the Lt Governor of Delhi appointed a high-level committee to go into the details of widening the road and expansion of circulating area The agreed integrated plan incorporates the widening of the existing road from 84 ft to 120 ft providing additional parking space and redistribution of parking lots on a scientific basis

*A new Over-bridge is under construction

Vehicles and Conveyances

Slow Moving Vehicles—

Animals like camel, donkey, bullock and horse are used within the Territory of Delhi for the purpose of carrying goods The camel carries goods on its back or pulls the cart generally in the suburbs The washerman uses the donkey for carrying clothes The brick-kiln operators transport their materials from one place to another on the back of the animal Animal-drawn carts are convenient vehicles for transporting goods and play an important role in the economy of Delhi The primary agricultural produce, whatever may be its ultimate destination or method of transport almost invariably travels by carts for the first stage of the journey Naturally the volume of transport of goods by animal-drawn carts is very high The importance of animal-drawn carts was underlined in a survey of the goods traffic in Delhi conducted by the Ministry of Transport and Shipping in 1957 According to this survey there were about 12,000 such carts distributed in ten towns and 304 villages These carts generally belonged to two principal categories viz agricultural and industrial The agricultural carts numbered about 9,000 of which 8 553 belonged to the rural area of Delhi Of the 3,000 industrial carts, 2 000 were bullock carts and the rest were horse-driven In Shahdara there were a few camel carts and they generally plied between Ghaziabad and Shahdara border But these were ignored in the course of the survey because it was felt that the share of their contribution in the field of road transport in Delhi was negligible

Tongas—These horse-driven carriages for passenger traffic are decreasing every year with the emergence of new modes of transport appearing on Delhi roads Poor business due to restrictions on routes are also forcing many tonga drivers to shift to other professions The number of tongas before independence was about 5 000 According to official figures, their number was reduced to 2 573 in 1969 from 2 681 in 1968 It is estimated that about 200 tongas are on the way out every year Delhi is still one of the cities in the country using a large number of tongas but in another 15 years this mode of conveyance will become extinct

Bicycles—Bicycle is the common man's vehicle in Delhi The hawkers milk vendors, vegetable sellers, office goers students, teachers, shop-keepers and many others ride on cycles in their day-to-day life Sometimes this cheap mode of trans-

port is used to carry an entire family including the children and charpoys, the carrier being very convenient for multi-purposes. Within a range estimated at about five miles or 30 minute travel-time, the bicycle has proved to be more economical means of transport today than any other means of transit system of bus or train obtaining in Delhi

Bicycle traffic is exceptionally heavy during the peak hours It tends to concentrate on favoured roads such as Shankar Road, Panchkuin Road, Lodi Estate Road, Sri Aurobindo Marg (Mehrauli Road), G T Road and Roshanara Road The traffic from the east of the Yamuna has generally to concentrate on the bridge The cyclists are a significant factor in road congestion and a source of traffic accidents because of their tendency to ride abreast of each other and to maintain a speed which carries them around animal-drawn vehicles but requires motor-driven vehicles to pass them

According to an origin and destination survey made in 1957 about seven out of ten vehicles plying on Delhi roads were bicycles The following statement shows the increase in the number of Bicycles in Delhi during the period 1960-70 *

Table—1

Bicycles in Delhi

Year	Number of Cycles (in '000)
1960	375
1961	400
1962	425
1963	440
1964	475
1965	500
1966	525
1969-1970	818

**Source* · *Techno Economic Survey of Delhi*

Table 2 below indicates the general trend of slow m(vehicles on road in Delhi during the period 1960-69 *

Table—2

Number of Public Vehicles by types other than Automobile

Type of vehicle	1960-61	1962-63	1964-65	1967-68	1969-
Horse driven vehicle (Tonga/Ekka)	3,187	3,053	2,851	2,663	2,5
Cycle Rickshaws	951	971	1,026	1,024	1,01
Horse driven vehicle (Rehra) .	1,619	1,702	1,539	1,409	1,22
Other animal drawn vehicles (Bullock-Buffallo Carts, etc)	2,001	1,998	1,599	1,331	1,24
Man-pulled vehicles (Thela, etc)	N A	6,456	4,815	5,823	6,11

Fast Moving Vehicles

The number of motor cars in Delhi in 1959-60 was 12 614 It stood at 47,809 by 1969-70 The number of n cycles and motor cycle rickshaws in 1959-60 was 11 024 T buses and trucks numbered in 1959-60 — 1,734, 1,206 and 3 respectively The Table below indicates the rapid increase in number of fast moving vehicles on road in Delhi

**Source Techno Economic Survey of Delhi*, 1973

CLASS OF VEHICLES

Years	Motor-cars	Motor-cycles	Goods trucks	Motor-cycle-Rick-shaws	Taxis	Buses
1959-60	12,614	8,821	3,406	2,200	1,734	1,206
1960-61 . . .	15,084	12,081	4,134	2,757	1,977	1,342
1961-62 .	16,412	15,018	4,081	3,650	2,008	1,402
1962-63 . . .	19,718	18,777	4,574	3,784	2,055	1,506
1963-64 . .	22,548	22,700	5,414	4,710	1,976	1,501
1964-65 . . .	26,227	30 851	5,737	5,662	2,086	1,570
1965-66 . . .	29,039	33,090	6,799	6,035	2,751	1,720
1966-67 . . .	32,194	33,590	7,127	6,296	3,045	1,819
1967-68	36,481	49,120	8,417	7,485	3,328	2,304
1968-69 .	40,627	58 693	10,032	8,214	3,419	2,553
1969-70 .	47,809	71,348	10,288	9,327	3,507	2,601

Transport vehicles operating for hire are allowed to operate on the basis of permits issued by the State Transport Authority as required under the provisions of the Motor Vehicles Act, 1939. These permits are required to be endorsed by the transport authorities of the States to which the vehicles go Reciprocal transport agreements are concluded for the inter-state operation of trucks The Delhi Administration has agreements with the State Governments of Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Gujarat, Jammu and Kashmir, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra Mysore Punjab Haryana, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal

Thus goods are being carried now to all parts of the country Similar agreements for the operation of passenger traffic have been made with the neighbouring States of Uttar Pradesh, Punjab, Haryana, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh Jammu and Kashmir and the Union Territory of Chandigarh There is considerable passenger traffic between Delhi and the neighbouring towns of U P and Haryana

Public Transport

The problem of mass transportation is as acute in Delhi as in other metropolitan cities High population densities due to growing expansion in administrative activities, business and commercial establishments and manufacturing industries in Delhi together with the rapid expansion of the urban area along with the periphery have made a substantial dependence on mass transit essential Moreover, the central business district of Delhi possesses a unique character The work centres are concentrated at a few well-defined areas—the Central Secretariat the Connaught Place and Indraprastha Estate complex in New Delhi and Chandni Chowk (Fatehpuri, Khari Baoli, Naya Bazar, Sadar Bazar) in old Delhi The concentration of work centres at a few places makes the mass transit problem more difficult With the exception of movement by train, which is comparatively small, about 30 per cent of the local travel depends on passenger buses — public or privately owned

Delhi Transport Undertaking*

The bus service had a very small beginning in Delhi in the late thirties of the present century At that time a few individual operators had started plying buses on some routes In 1940 the Gwalior and Northen India Transport Company was granted permit for operating buses in Delhi On May 14, 1948, the Government of India acquired the city bus service from G N I T, and ran it departmentally for two years under the direct control of the Ministry of Transport The Delhi Road Transport Authority (D R T A) was set up on April 1, 1950, to control the bus and tram services in Delhi It continued until April 7, 1958 when the Municipal Corporation of Delhi came into being and took over the functions of the D R T A Under Section 288 of the Delhi Municipal Corporation Act, Delhi Transport Undertaking is charged to take steps from time to time for promoting and securing an efficient, adequate, economical and properly co ordinated system of road transport service in the capital of India

The fleet strength of the Undertaking's buses had gone up from 516 in 1958-59 to 1203 in 1968-69 The number of passengers travelled (per bus) increased from 782 in 1958-59

*By an ordinance dated the 3-11-71, the D.T.U has been taken over by the Centre and renamed Delhi Transport Corporation.

to 819 in 1968-69 The Table given below shows the growth of passenger traffic and passengers travelled during the period 1958-1971

Year	Fleet Strength	Average No of buses put on the road per day	Percentage of utilisation	Daily average per bus		
				No of passengers	K Ms operated	Passengers carried per K M.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1958-59	516	370	71 7	782	198 80	3 95
1959-60	612	408	66 7	858	198 05	4 33
1960-61	668	480	71 9	912	203 69	4 48
1961-62	727	552	75 9	915	211 39	4 33
1962-63	804	619	76 9	961	215 08	4 47
1963-64	880	639	72 6	875	213 96	4 11
1964-65 .	918	649	70 7	811	208 28	3 89
1965-66	973	676	69 5	777	204 67	3 80
1966-67	1024	752	73 4	807	194 73	4 65
1967-68 .	1206	848	70 3	893	190 06	4 70
1968-69 .	1203	933	77 5	819	188 34	4·35
1969-70	1193	919	77 0	867	183 00	4 73
1970-71	1288	870	67 5	846	167 00	5 06

Mini Buses

To overcome the shortage of D.T U. buses, the Government gave licenses to private operators to ply mini buses in Delhi between the railway stations the inter-state bus stop and various localities These buses were allowed to charge a comparatively higher fare, (the minimum being 35 paise) as these were also to carry luggage of the passengers. These buses offer a speedy means of transport.

Inter-State Bus Terminal

Almost all the towns lying within the national capital region are situated along five national highways These highways converge on Delhi Due to lack of adequate *inter se* road linkage between these towns their inter-communication is via Delhi only Although the railways have provided shuttle train services between Delhi and the neighbouring towns like Rewari, Palwal Panipat Rohtak, Meerut, and Khurja etc It is the road transport which gives a more frequent and convenient service to these and other towns These satellite towns are an integral part of the Delhi Metropolitan Area even though located in U P and Haryana No peripheral movement of direct traffic between these towns is possible until the construction of a by-pass perimeter road which the Master Plan has suggested Until such time these by-passes come into being, Delhi must continue to serve as an intermediate terminating point for such traffic

The commuter traffic to and from Delhi is also increasing day by day Hundreds of thousands of persons travel between Delhi and the neighbouring towns The working population in these towns is bound to increase further More and more people will be travelling like this in the context of business, employment and entertainment During the past years the rate of growth of road traffic to and from Delhi has been much higher than the rate of growth of rail traffic A major burden of the anticipated increase is likely to fall on road transport

In spite of the growing road transport, Delhi did not have any separate terminal for inter-State buses There were a few local bus junctions in the vicinity of Delhi Railway Station, Church Mission Road and Thompson Road These terminal points were heavily congested There was hardly any scope for their expansion The streets found these junction points choked with traffic Loading and discharge of passengers and goods was going on all the time Buses were idling between trips And there were no passenger-waiting rooms loading or unloading platforms toilets or other amenities

As proposed in the Master Plan the Inter-State Bus Terminal has been set up outside Kashmire Gate This location has certain advantages Firstly the present site is very well connected with national highways which will provide traffic from various big and small cities of U P Haryana and Rajasthan The Grand Trunk Road through Shahdara connects Ghaziabad

Meerut, Muzaffarnagar, Dehra Dun, Khurja and Aligarh The National Highway No. 2 links Delhi with Agra, Mathura and a small portion of Haryana.

The Kashmire Gate area is very close to the Delhi Railway Station It is, therefore, very convenient for passengers desiring to continue their journey by rail Tis Hazari courts are also very near The terminal site greatly suits those who have to attend courts for litigation purposes

Inter-State operation

The Delhi Transport Undertaking operates on the following inter-State routes

Inter-State routes	Date of commencement	Distance (Kms)	No of buses (31-3-69)	Average income per bus Km (paise)
1	2	3	4	5
Faridabad	19-3-1962	37 6	18	111 25
Jaipur	17-7-1962	319 0	2	160 25
Gwalior	25-10-1963	335 0	1	150 25
Jhunjhunu	20-2-1965	261 0	1	124 75
Ghaziabad	17-5-1965	23 1	8	107 80
Jammu	28-10-1965	585 0	1	135 25
Bahadurgarh	1-8-1966	33 6	2	74 16
Khetri	23-9-1966	216 5	1	141 16
Alwar	26-9-1966	170 5	1	135 00
Jind	8-1-1968	127 4	2	127 33
			37	

D.T U. Programme

The existing facilities provided by the Delhi Transport Undertaking have proved inadequate to meet the requirement

of a growing number of people who rely mainly on the buses for transit There has been a rising demand for additional bus services The D T U s proposals for the Fourth Plan envisaged an outlay of Rs 10 82 crores to provide an efficient fleet of vehicles to ensure regular, punctual and adequate transport facilities to the travelling public in the capital as well as to meet the additional requirements of the growing population keeping in view the transport facilities needed by the people in the newly developed areas

The build-up of the fleet was worked out at the level indicated below

(i) For operation on existing routes with increased passenger traffic		1,400
(ii) For new colonies, industrial areas etc	.	125
(iii) For rural areas	. .	75
(iv) For Inter-State Operation		65
	TOTAL	Rs 1,665

The Undertaking had a total fleet of 973 vehicles at the end of the Third Plan and provision was made for an additional fleet of 692 buses during the Fourth Plan The Planning Commission, however could provide Rs 9 crores as against Rs 10 82 crores sought for by the D T U for development programme under the Fourth Plan

Railway

From the transport and communication view-point Delhi has always been an important passenger terminus and main link between the Ganges Valley and north-west India It was opened to railway traffic on January 1, 1867, after the completion of the bridge over the Yamuna by the East Indian Railway The Delhi — Ambala — Kalka railway was opened on March 1, 1891 The completion of the Delhi — Rohtak — Jind — Bhatinda line in 1897 and the opening of the Agra — Delhi chord of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway in 1904 made Delhi station the largest railway junction in northern India When the capital of India was constructed at New Delhi, slightly to the south, additional station facilities were located at New Delhi and the broad gauge line from Agra was brought up to "T" junction, far enough to reach New Delhi station

Increasing Traffic

An ever-increasing volume of freight and passenger traffic pass through Delhi There is only one route towards the east via Ghaziabad, where as many as three streams of traffic from Saharanpur, Moradabad and Tundla converge The same is the case for traffic coming from the south, central and western railways, all of which converge at Delhi via Nizamuddin The resultant pressure on these two lines would be obvious from the following Table

Section	Type of Service	Number of trains each way per day at the end of		
		First Plan	Second Plan	Third Plan
Ghaziabad—Delhi .	Passenger	26	31	34
	Goods	12	13	17
	TOTAL	38	44	51
New Delhi-Nizam-ud-din .	Passenger	16	21	24
	Goods	7	15	14
	TOTAL .	23	36	38

This traffic has to pass through the triangle having vertices at Delhi Main, New Delhi and Delhi Kishanganj/Subzimandi The problem is further complicated by the metre-gauage line which cuts through this triangle to link up Delhi and Delhi-Sarai Rohilla

Inter-Urban Passengers

The movement of inter-urban passengers by rail has also increased considerably In 1964-65, the number of daily inward and outward passengers at various stations in the urban area of Delhi was 33,000 each way It is likely to go up to 48,000 and 78,000 by 1971-72 and 1981-82, respectively The main limitations in the current situation are (a) limited facilities at

Delhi and New Delhi stations, (b) steam traction, (c) absence of route relay inter-locking installations and (d) defective layout of the track between Delhi and New Delhi railway stations

Avoiding Lines

With a view to relieving the pressure of freight and passenger traffic on the 'saturated triangle' two projects were drawn up The first commonly known as the "goods avoiding lines", was the development of a yard at Taghluqabad providing direct connection to this yard from Ghaziabad through a second bridge over the Yamuna and connecting this yard with Shakurbasti-Bhatinda as also Subzimandi-Ambala sections, skirting the capital It is called the 'avoiding line' because it helps to divert 'through" traffic from the congested tracks within the city and relieves New Delhi and Delhi stations of unnecessary strain by goods train The importance of goods traffic has increased with the green revolution in the states of Punjab and Haryana A considerable quantity of grain moves from these areas to different parts of the country through Delhi while fertilizers and consumer goods travel to these two States At times goods trains are delayed or they hamper the smooth movement of passenger trains So an avoiding line was a must It has been described as a vital link in the new railway complex in the capital

The project involved construction of 23 bridges provision of seven new level crossing and extension of existing ones, four new road-overbridges and fly-over for the metre-gauge section

Commissioned on February 16, 1969, the avoiding line links Tughluqabad and also Sahibabad with the Delhi-Bhatinda and Delhi-Ambala stations via Patel Nagar and Azadpur It enables goods trains to by-pass Delhi Main and New Delhi stations completely It is a single track now but there is enough room for "quadrupling" it need be The total length is 17 85 kms consisting of four sections - the stretch between Delhi-Mathura line and the Nizamuddin — Safdarjang line, extension of this line up to Delhi cantonment (Broadgauge at Patel Nagar), connection of Delhi cantonment - Broadgauge with the Delhi - Ferozepur main near the Rampura level crossing and connecting the Delhi-Karnal-Ambala line

The second project connects Tughluqabad with Delhi — Kishanganj—Bhatinda line and the Subzimandi—Ambala cantonment line As these lines would avoid Delhi, the project is known as "Delhi avoiding lines" It is mainly an extension of the existing branch line from Nizamuddin to Safdarjang with

fly-over to meter-gauge line to avoid interference with traffic on Rewari-Delhi section This project has also been completed and lines opened to traffic

Taj and Rajdhani

Inauguration of the Taj Express between Delhi and Agra from Octoer 1, 1964, introduced a new concept on modern travel in Indian railways The need for fast, comfortable, medium distance trains enabling one day excursion to centres of tourist interest was fully met by this new service which provided foreign and local tourists an opportunity to plan a one-day trip from the metropolis to the world-famous symphony in marble — the Taj — and other archaeological monuments in and around Agra Leaving New Delhi at 7 15 hours in the morning, the tourist can be back home at 22 05 hours the same evening after a full day's sight seeing

The Rajdhani Express, the fastest train in the country, was introduced from March 1, 1969, linking New Delhi with Calcutta It covers a long stretch of 1,445 kms, in almost 17 hours Another Rajdhani Express connects New Delhi with Bombay The Radhani offerr fully air-conditioned sleeping or sitting accommodation in dust-proof, noise-free, deep-cushioned sleeper coaches or slumberette chair-cars A product of intensive research and extensive field trials aimed at speedy and safe inter-city transporation, the Express train has broken fresh grounds in the sphere of efficient, fast and comfortable journey on railway wheels There is also a bi-weekly vestibule train service connecting Delhi with Calcutta, Bombay and Madras

Rail-Road Co-relation

The increasing volume of traffic in Delhi rules out for an appreciably length of time to come in any keen competition between rail and road transport The growth of one will not stand in the way of expansion of the other Within the city area two factors however, deserve to be mentioned which have a bearing on rail-road co-relation New Delhi was originally planned as a capital centre with a system of roads radiating from Connaught Circus with little regard to highway connections to old Delhi The Delhi-Agra broad-gauge railway line, dividing the two areas, has only road under-passes at Minto Road and Tilak bridge As the two cities have now gone far towards coalescing traffic jams on these two limited, accesses between old and new Delhi have become numerous

Another point where the rail system conflicts with the highways is the level crossings of the broadgauge spur to the cantonment and parallel metregauge lines to Rewari where they cross Rohtak and Patel roads, the two main arteries to the west Railway operations close these roads for the majority of the time during the heaviest traffic hours An overbridge, however, has been constructed at Patel Road The Safdarjang branch of the railways also crosses Aurobindo Marg leading to the south In view of the growing traffic, an overbridge at Safdarjang also has been constructed

Waterways

Delhi is situated on the Yamuna river, the major tributary of the Ganges The water of the river continues to play an important part in the ecology of the people both in urban and rural areas of Delhi and the influence of the river extends beyond the Union Territory through canalization But as a waterway the river has ceased to be of any consequence Its changing course, insufficient water in summer time and connecting bridges have made transport by boats, barges and steam launches obsolete The few public ferries on the Yamuna are probably the only survivals of a mode of transport which has passed into oblivion

The existing ferry boats plying in five different areas are under the control of the Municipal Corporation of Delhi The areas are Sungrarpur (18 kms from Kashmire Gate) Burari (13 kms) Wazirabad (2 kms) Okhla (16 kms) and Jaitpur (22 kms) The ferry boats at Wazirabad transport villagers and their merchandise throughout the year In Jaitpur and other places the boats cannot ply when there is heavy rainfall as also in winter when the river water dries up The public ferry at Sungrarpur helps movement of villagers not merely of the neighbouring villages of Delhi but also of Uttar Pradesh Milk vendors and dealers in sugar and *gur* from the latter region are frequent users of this ferry and carry their merchandise with them

The length of the waterway traversed by the ferries is about a kilometre and the average number of passengers per day varies between 100 to 200 The ferries are put to yearly auction In the financial year 1970-71, it brought to the coffers of the Municipal Corporation a sum of Rs 4 015 only With more bridges coming up over the Yamuna this mode of transport by boat will become a thing of the past at no distant future

Boat Bridge

The Yamuna boat-bridge, inaugurated in 1962 at the time of the Chinese aggression, is by all appearances on the way to be a part and parcel of Delhi's transport system Intended to relieve the heavy congestion of traffic on the rail-cum-road bridge over the Yamuna, the adjacent boat bridge was installed down-stream running parallel to it On boat the bridge covers a distance of 700 feet The approaches from the side of Delhi's Ring Road are 2,000 feet long, the corresponding length from the side of Shahdara is about 1,200

The boat-bridge is open to light traffic like private cars, motor rickshaws, motorcycles including scooters, cycles etc Heavy vehicles are not allowed to pass over it During the peak hours from 8 00 a m to 11 00 a m and from 5 00 p m. to 8 00 p m traffic is restricted to cyclists only The bridge goes out of commission for about four months a year beginning from June when it is dismantled The monsoon and consequent flood-tide in the river make it impossible for the boat-bridge to function Barring this period, the bridge functions throughout day and night Provision for adequate lighting and watchmen has been made It has been estimated that the boat-bridge has lessened the burden of light traffic on the adjacent rail-cum-road bridge to the extent of 75 per cent The Municipal Corporation spends annually a sum of Rs 1 8 lakhs for the maintenance of this bridge

Transport By Air

Air Ways And Aerodromes

The Imperial Airways made their inaugural flight from Cairo to Delhi via Basra arriving in the Indian Capital on January 8, 1927 The Government of India made an arrangement with the Imperial airways to operate a weekly flight between Delhi and Karachi which started on December 30, 1929 Besides assuring a fixed rate of profit to the carrier, the Government agreed to pay for the entire expenses incurred by the Airways for operating the service The Air Station at New Delhi had already come up (1927) and the Government of India had sanctioned in 1927 a scheme for the grant of financial assistance to the four flying clubs which were founded in Delhi, Karachi, Bombay and Calcutta—1928

The honour of providing the first indigenous air transport operation in the country must go to the Delhi Flying Club which

flew for a period of 18 months mails between Delhi and Karachi from December 1931 when the charter arrangement with Imperial Airways lapsed

Willingdon Air Station

An administrative building, the first of its kind to be erected in any of the airports in the country, was constructed at the New Delhi aerodrome It was opened by the Viceroy, Lord Willingdon, on February 22, 1936, and named after him The Willingdon Airport (now called Safdarjang because of its nearness to the tomb bearing the same name) is limited to a 3,500-foot runway It is entirely inadequate for modern types of planes and is now being used only by Indian Airlines smaller aircraft and private planes and gliders of the Delhi Flying Club and Delhi Gliding Club The expansion of Delhi towards the south has become a handicap for the Safdarjang airport, which is now situated in the heart of built-up area There is a serious obstruction to the flow of traffic on the Aurobindo Marg as this road crosses the flight tunnel of the airport Aircraft movement and air traffic at the Safdarjang airport are shown in annexures I & II

Delhi (Palam) Airport

Constructed during the World War II, this airport was designed to meet the operational needs of the Indian Air Force A two-runway complex with a main runway of 6,000 feet was considered adequate at that time When the war came to an end in 1945, the developing need of international and domestic civil operations was given due consideration As a result the control of Delhi Airport was transferred to the Civil Aviation Department in 1946 The Director General took over the administrative control of the terminal buildings and full responsibility for the runways, taxiway, aprons, parking area and road system but the operational control remained with the Indian Air Force In March 1965, the airport passed under the absolute jurisdiction of the Civil Aviation Department

Modernisation Of The Airport

The runways along with the associated taxi-tracks had to be kept in a state of continuous development to meet the operational needs In 1961-62, priority was given to the extension of the runway to 10,500 feet to take care of Boeing and similar type of aircraft DC-8 and VC-10 In pursuance of the recom-

mendations of an expert committee the runway has been extended to 12,500 ft to meet the requirement of aircraft like the Boeing 747

Equal importance has been given to the handling of passenger traffic The terminal complex has been progressively modified with the addition of new international transit and departure halls, a new custom area and a new health and immigration area for incoming and out-going international passengers The terminal building with a new look and modern amenities like air-conditioning was opened in March 1968 Further additions have been made In November 1970, the Delhi Airport received the first Jumbo Jet.

Statistics relating to aircraft movement passenger traffic, freight and mail traffic and scheduled services operated by Indian and foreign airlines connecting Delhi Airport with other regions are given in the Appendices I to X

Travel And Tourist Facilities

Delhi attracts a large number of tourists from different parts of the country and outside Some of them are interested in its temples and gurdwaras many have their eyes on its historical monuments and others are interested in its growing urban architecture For many of them Delhi is also a halting place to fan out in many directions, leading to important cities like Srinagar, Amritsar, Jaipur, Agra Varanasi and Khajurao The accommodation available to the tourists are of various types

Dharamshalas

The *Dharamshalas* or rest houses for pilgrims represent the old type It is an age-old institution which cannot be replaced by the modern hotel with their latest gadgets Intended to serve the pilgrims visiting the shrines in the city, the *Dharamshalas* in old Delhi retain their traditional character of charging no rent from the visitors while those situated in New Delhi accept small payments as donations to meet their operational cost Some of the *Dharamshalas* provide the venue for marriage and offer accommodation to the party accompanying the bride or the bridegroom

Lakshmi Narayan *Dharamshala* at Fatehpuri, hardly five minutes' walk from the Delhi railway junction, was established in 1906 Managed by a trust, it receives about 150 visitors

and employs a dozen persons including a manager to look after the temporary residents There is a small place of worship inside with images of various deities The trust also manages three more rest houses for marriage parties only Lala Jhabban Lal Teliwar *Dharamshala* at Teliwara presents a picture of calm and cleanliness although it is adjacent to Sadar Bazar, a crowded commercial centre of Delhi This *Dharamshala* offers accommodation to about 100 visitors daily and supplies utensils for cooking if the visitors ask for The Lakshmi Narayan Temple at New Delhi Mandir Marg has a *Dharamshala* within its precincts which is being managed by a trust since 1940 The *Dharamshala* with 24 rooms and a big hall can accommodate about 250 persons The Kali Bari *Dharamshala*, also at Mandir Marg, was established on August 24 1950 It has 12 family suites and seven dormitories Accommodation is also made available to the cultural troupes and student groups visiting the capital

The Sikh *Dharamshalas* in Delhi have the unique distinction of supplying food to the visiting pilgrims from the *langar khanas* or community kitchens Guru Tegh Bahadur Niwas, set up in 1969 within the premises of Sisganj Gurdwara is managed by Gurdwara Prabandhak Committee, Delhi About 200 pilgrims are offered accommodation for which they have not to pay anything Similar arrangements exist in the *Dharamshalas* at Gurdwara Rakabganj Gurdwara Bangla Sahib and Gurdwara Bala Sahib

The Jain Rest House at Shaheed Bhagat Singh Marg, New Delhi, was founded in 1963 There are 30 rooms for use by the visitors who can have vegetarian meal served to them from the Kitchen attached to the Rest House The Jains belonging to different sects manage more than 15 *Dharamshalas* in and around Chandni Chowk

Some of the other well-known Dharamshalas are Buddhist Pilgrimage Centre, Chelmsford Road, New Delhi, for bonafide Buddhist tourists, Marwari Panchayat *Dharamshala*, Nai Sarak, Delhi, Hindu Mahasabha *Dharamshala*, Mandir Marg, New Delhi, Bhupinder Hall, Panchkuin Road, New Delhi, Lachhu Mal Jain *Dharamshala*, Esplanade Road Delhi, Parsi Anjuman, Bahadurshah Zafar Marg, near Delhi Gate, New Delhi, Ladli Prasad *Dharamshala*, Fatehpuri, Delhi, and Bholu Mal *Dharamshala*, Chawri Bazar Delhi

Rest houses under the jurisdiction of CPWD are located in Badarpur, Alipur, Nangloi, Qutb and Najafgarh areas

Dak Bungalows, Inspection Houses And Hotels

The dak bungalows and inspection houses serve primarily the need of the officials who require accommodation for stay in Delhi in the course of their official duties The major demand for board and lodging which emanates from non-officials, mostly tourists and travellers, is largely met by the innumerable hotels

Hotels —Among the hotels in the public sector, Ashoka has a pride of place Situated almost on the way to the international airport Palam and equipped with almost all the amenities that a modern tourist can ask for, it attracts a large number of visitors all the year round Excellent business is also done by the hoteliers in the private sector The top class hotels serve in Western style and provide both air-conditioned rooms and non-air-conditioned rooms The service charges vary from 5% to 12½% Some of the Western style hotels in Old and New Delhi are Airlines Hotel Alka Ambassador, Bhagirath Palace Hotel, Broadway, Central Court Hotel Claridges, Diplomat, Flora Imperial Janpath Hotel Lodi Hotel, Maidens, Marina, Mero Rajdoot, Ranjit Vikram, Y M C A Tourist Hostel Y W C A International, India International Centre, International Youth Centre, Oberoi Intercontinental and Hotel Akbar

Among other hotels mention may be made of Agra Palace—Height, Prabhat Madras, Moti Mahal, Punjab and Rex Accommodation is also available at Y W C A . Railway retiring rooms (for railway passengers only), Camping Ground (Bhooli Bhatiyari Ka Mahal Link Road New Delhi), Bharat Scouts and Guides Camping Ground (at Nizam-ud-din) and recently a new camping park near Irwin Hospital has been started where tourists are allowed to pitch their own tents or live in the tents provided by the DMC at a nominal rent and youth hostels

Travel Agents And Guides

Being an important city in the world of tourists, Delhi has a number of travel agents who help the travellers to undertake the journey to Delhi and make their stay care-free and comfortable The recognised travel agencies operating in Delhi are Ambassador Travel (Pvt) Ltd , American Express Co Inc , Travel World, Careways (India) Pvt Limited, Asiatic Travel Service, Cox and Kings (Agents) Ltd , Everest Travel Service,

Indian Air Travels Iyer and Sons (Pvt) Ltd, Jamnadas and Co, Jeena & Co, Mercury Travels (Pvt) Ltd, Orient Express Co (Pvt) Ltd, Trade Wings (Pvt) Ltd, Travel Corporation (India) Pvt Ltd, Saha and Rai (Pvt) Ltd, Sita World Travels (India) Pvt Ltd and Thomas Cooks

A list of approved guides is maintained by the Tourist Office, Government of India The approved guides carry identity cards and wear armbands (badges for lady guides) issued by the Department of Tourism Depending on the number of tourists the charges for local sightseeing vary from Rs 13 00 to Rs 20/- for half day and from Rs 28/- to Rs 29/- for a full day For outstations (80 kms or above) the rates range from Rs 25/- to Rs 33/- irrespective of the time spent on duty An additional fee of Rs 10/- is charged for an assignment in any foreign language other than English

Posts, Telegraphs And Telephones

The growth of postal services in Delhi since independence is as impressive as the city's expansion in many other directions Although Delhi was the capital of undivided India, its postal services were controlled by the Postmaster-General, Punjab and North-West-Frontier Circle with headquarters at Lahore The sudden influx of displaced persons and the expansion of official and non-official activities in the wake of transfer of power required the strengthening of the service In the middle of December 1947, Delhi became a sub-circle of Punjab circle under the control of an Additional Post-Master-General After some time, all the post and telegraphic installations *viz*, post offices railway mail service, telegraphs and telephones in the capital were placed under the direct control of the Director General of Posts & Telegraphs After a short break in the arrangement when the postal and railway mail services of Delhi were placed under the Post-Master-General at Ambala, an independant postal circle under a Director of Postal Services was established in Delhi with its boundaries extending over the Delhi State The circle, which has been enjoying this position to date, looks after the postal and railway mail service arrangements of the Union Territory, its telegraph and telephone arrangements being under the General Manager, Telephones The traffic control in the combined offices, however, rests with the Director, Postal Services

Operative Side

The Delhi Circle has nine units including Delhi and New Delhi General Post Offices, Parliament Street Head Office, Mail

Motor Services and the Foreign Post The Foreign Post caters to the need of Delhi, Uttar Pradesh, Punjab, Haryana, Jammu and Kashmir and Himachal Pradesh For delivery purposes, the whole of Delhi has been divided into 62 zones and zonal number has been assigned to each delivery post office The pincode numbers and names of 56 delivery post offices are given in Appendix XI

Planned Development

The main features of development are the opening of new post offices, improvement in mail delivery arrangements, enlargement of agency functions extension of public call office facilities, expansion of R M S and mechanisation of postal services

In the middle of August 1947, there were 104 post offices including 19 in rural areas of Delhi The number rose to 130 on April 1, 1951, when the First Five Year Plan was launched There has been a constant increase with the number having gone up to 219 At the end of the Third Plan there were 350 post offices The Fouth Plan envisaged opening of 60 post offices in urban areas and 34 in rural areas

Besides normal postal services, there are three mobile post offices which provide facilities of late posting for connection with night airmail service Besides selling stamps these post offices accept unregistered articles without late fee, registered letters and accept airmail parcels The mobile post offices cater to the need of inhabitants in important localities of Delhi and New Delhi, where due to non-availability of accommodation, it has not been possible to open additional post offices or where the post offices are closed in the evening There are also 11 night post offices which work between 8 a m to 9 p m primarily to serve those who want to purchase stamps and send registered articles after normal office hours A round the clock post office functions at Palam airport to meet the requirement of incoming and outgoing passengers at the airport At the end of March, 1970 public call facilities were available in 166 post offices as against 74 on the same date in 1961

Mechanisation of postal services is also making a headway in order to reduce the fatigue on the staff in manual operations and also to secure quicker disposal of mails Fourteen postal stationery selling machines have been introduced in important post offices in Delhi and New Delhi Conveyor belts have been provided at Delhi Air Sorting Office and Delhi R M S Escota

machines and adding machines have also been introduced besides 12 bundle tying instruments and eight texograph machines for booking of registered articles Six stamp cancellation machines for defacing stamps on articles received for delivery and booked for despatch are in operation

Postal Delivery

The number of deliveries effected from the post offices varies from two to four depending on the volume of mails and importance of the locality The number of delivery post offices rose from 20 on the 1st of April 1961, to 56 at the end of 1972

Telegraph

The oldest surviving telegram in the possession of the Indian Telegraph Department originated from Delhi only a day after the first shot in the Great Revolt of 1857 was fired at Meerut In fact there were two telegrams sent from Delhi to 'Amballa' and thence to all stations They read as follows

Received for tram — Date 11th May 1857

To All Stations

From Amballa

The following just recd from Delhi We must leave office all the Bungalows are being burnt down by the Sepoys of Meerut They came in this morning We are off don't roll today Mr C Todd is dead we think He went out this morning and has not returned yet We heard that nine Europeans were killed Good bye.

L N Fraser

Rawalpindee

Message from Delhi 11th May

From Brigadier Frazer

Comdg at Delhi

Number of words 78 service

To Amballa

To Brigadier

Commdg at Amballa

Cantonment in a state of siege Mutineers from Meerut 3rd Light Cavalry number not known said to be one hundred and fifty men cut off Communication with Meerut taken possession of the Bridge of Boats 54th N I sent against them but would not act Several officers killed and wounded City in a state of considerable excitement Troops sent down but nothing certain yet Further information will be forwarded Copy to be sent to Brigadier in Command Rawelpindie

Electric Telegraph Office
12th May 1857
Despatch 7 20 A M

L N Fraser
Inspector in charge

Delhi the capital city of India has always been the key to the communication system, although this status was enjoyed by Simla and earlier by Calcutta In 1929, teletype was introduced between New Delhi and Old Delhi Telegraph Offices The teleprinter system of working was introduced between Delhi and Agra shortly afterwards in order to dispose the load at telegraph traffic expeditiously

The telex system was introduced in 1953 which enabled the public to transmit and receive telegrams by means of the teleprinter machines This has cut down entirely the delay a telegram suffered in a telegraph office and time taken by telegraph messengers to deliver the same

Today, the telegraph office in Delhi is considered to be one of the most modern telegraph offices among the developing countries It has links with almost all the headquarters of the States and other commercial towns within the country Even the local, zonal and other delivery offices in the capital are connected with it mostly on teleprinters It handles approximately 2 50 crores of telegrams annually On an average the daily number of telegrams booked in the Central Telegraph Office alone is 10,970 and 13,860 telegrams are delivered daily In addition, it transmits about 30,000 telegrams to and from other offices

Phonogram facility has also been centralised in this office Recently a new technique of call-queuing system has been introduced for the convenience of the public Under this system, phonograms are straightaway taken down without ringing back

Delhi is also connected with Nepal (Kathmandu) by radio teleprinter and Pakistan by channel T P The entire foreign traffic is routed through overseas communication service by the International Telegraph office, Parliament Street, New Delhi This office deals with all foreign telegrams

Telephones

The Durbar of 1911 witnessed the commissioning of the first regular telephone service in Delhi By the end of 1920 the city came to own about 800 telephones working on a manual system when a decision was taken to convert it into an automatic one The programme for conversion was completed in 1925 with the commissioning of three automatic exchanges of the then latest type of relay automatic system, one at the Secretariat, another at Lothian Road with 1 500 lines and one more at Delhi Cantonment with 300 lines

The history of development of telephone services in Delhi has been one of continuous growth for meeting the increasing demands of the capital city In 1935 a telephone exchange was commissioned in Connaught Place with a capacity of 700 lines Additional lines were provided in subsequent years In 1951 the capacity was raised to 7 000 lines, making it the single largest exchange in the city

Similar expansion was taking place in other areas of Delhi to meet the increasing demands A 600-line central battery multiple board was installed at Lothian Road in 1946 to be operated in conjunction with the automatic exchange This was subsequently expanded to 2,600 lines After a service of about 27 years, the entire equipment at Lothian Road exchange was replaced by a 4,000-line exchange

In 1949 the 2,000-line exchange at the Secretariat (of the Peel corner relay type) was dismantled and all telephone connections in this area were transferred to Connaught Place exchange Another manual exchange of 960-line capacity was opened in this area in 1941-42 primarily to cater to the requirements of the Defence services

The relay automatic equipment of 300 lines at Delhi Cantonment was replaced by a 300-line manual board in 1936-37 which was subsequently converted to an automatic exchange in 1950-51 with a 500-line exchange A new 2,000-line exchange was installed at the Secretariat in 1955 The capacity of the exchange in Delhi was doubled to 8,000 lines in 1956.

Impact of the Plans

Large scale development took place under the three Plans The number of telephone lines in Delhi rose from 1,260 in 1950-51 to about 24,900 by the end of the First Five Year Plan in March 1956 It rose further to 43,600 and 84,000 at the end of the Second and Third plans respectively The number of telephone lines was 1 33,591 in 1970-71 During the same year there were 1,442 public call offices

Trunk Service

The trunk exchange at New Delhi was modernised in 1951 by installation of a new type of switching equipment The number of trunk calls handled by the exchange has been rising progressively From the figure of 11,84,000 calls booked in 1951, the number rose to 22,80,000 in 1965 The overseas telephone trunk traffic handled only 437 calls in 1950-51 which increased to 1,370 in 1965-66

Telex (Teleprinter Exchange)

The first telex exchange was commissioned in Delhi in 1965 with a 200-line exchange Further expansion of this exchange is in progress to meet the increasing demand for telex facilities in this city Telex exchange has access to the national and international telex network

Subscriber Trunk Dialling

Subscriber to subscriber trunk dialling service is now available from Delhi to Agra, Ahmedabad, Chandigarh, Hapur, Jaipur, Jammu, Jullundur, Kanpur, Lucknow, Meerut Patna Simla, Srinagar, Amritsar and Bombay With this facility, it is possible for a subscriber in Delhi to get access to any subscriber in the distant exchange without the intervention of the trunk operator An automatic trunk exchange has been installed in Delhi which enables extension of the subscriber trunk dialling service to most of the important towns in the country on a fully inter-linked basis

Radio and Wireless Stations

Delhi was the first among radio stations set up by the Government of India after it took over the broadcasting service in the country Established in 1935 with two medium power transmitters (one medium wave and the other short wave) and temporary studios located at Alipore Road, it went on the air on January 1, 1936.

The clash of arms in the Second World War also highlighted the need for supremacy in the battle of words. The programme activities at Delhi station of the All India Radio increased both in volume and variety. A high power transmitting centre was established at old Delhi with a number of high power and medium power short-wave transmitters. The construction of the new Broadcasting House in New Delhi was taken up and completed in 1943 incorporating the latest advances in the technique of studio design.

The internal and external services of Delhi station expanded rapidly under the impact of the Five Year Plans. Today, Delhi has a total of 19 transmitters of varying strength which, with suitable combination carry the rich fare offered by the radio station. A new high power transmitting centre has been set up near Khampur. The service on medium wave is now available on four different channels including the popular Vividh Bharati service. Commercial service was introduced from the Delhi Centre in April 1969 over the Vividh Bharati channel. A new youth service was also introduced for the first time in the country from the Delhi station in 1969.

Besides catering to the needs of Delhi and its environs, the Delhi station of All India Radio functions as the primary 'National' station of AIR. Programmes designed for all India listening mostly originate from Delhi. Such programmes are broadcast over a number of short wave transmitters in order to enable regional stations of AIR to pick up these broadcasts and relay them over their own regional transmitters. The main news bulletins in the various languages, national programme of talks music, plays, features broadcasts to the nation by high dignitaries and special programmes arranged on important national days or anniversaries are among such broadcasts which emanate from the Delhi station but are made available to other stations of AIR for purposes of relay.

The number of broadcast receiver licenses in Delhi stood at 3,65,574, 4,35,193, 5,24,121, 4,65,618, 5,05,088 and 5,60,413 at the end of 1966, 1967, 1968, 1969, 1970 and 1971 respectively. On an average every second family in Delhi has a radio set.

Television

On August 15, 1959, televison was introduced for the first time in the country as a Pilot scheme, operating from All India Radio's Television Centre in Delhi. This experimental service

followed the resolution adopted by the Central Council of the Unesco in 1956, proposing the establishment of a pilot television station in South-East Asia with a view to assessing the impact of television as a medium of mass communication. A subsidy from the Unesco assisted in the establishment of community viewing centres, called 'Tele clubs' in and around Delhi. The evaluation report of Unesco published in 1963 showed a distinct and sizeable gain in the information of viewers.

Regular Service

The experimental television service was converted into a regular service from January 1, 1962. The duration of the service gradually increased with the expansion of studio facilities. There is a daily evening service at present apart from school telecasts. A mobile broadcast van has also been acquired to cover events of topical nature.

The television service at present is available within a radius of 60 kms around Delhi. The number of television licences has gone up in Delhi from 6161 in 1967 to 52,457 in June 1972. A special service for Delhi schools was started in 1961. Television sets have been provided to all the higher secondary schools for this purpose.

Wireless Stations

There are a number of wireless stations located in Delhi. The first centre at New Delhi was opened during the Second World War primarily to provide the press with facilities for transmission of despatches covering the campaigns in the Far Eastern theatres of war. On September 16, 1944, the New Delhi centre started operations with London. Temporary transmitting and receiving stations were put up at Lodi Road and the New Ridge respectively.

After the cessation of hostilities, the Government of India decided to retain the New Delhi service as a permanent feature, recognising the prospective needs of a fast developing area. Independent India felt the urgent need to expand her communication facilities to foreign countries. By 1951, direct radio services were established with Afghanistan, Japan, Indonesia, Thailand, U.S.S.R., Egypt and Iran. The Delhi centre continued to take on more and more service even before it could catch up with its requirement of equipment and manpower. To feed the Indian embassies, consulates, etc., in foreign countries with the background of national news speedily and regularly a newscast

service was inaugurated on July 1, 1948 These newscasts have since continued to be radioed from New Delhi by telegraphy on extensive schedules over the high power transmitters daily with a well-designed aerial system

Planned Progress

The Overseas Communication Service included in its Five Year Plans modernisation and expansion of Delhi radio centre About a few kms from central traffic office at Parliament Street, a new transmitting station was set up in South Delhi, which has now become one of the most powerful international transmitting stations of the Overseas Communication Service It is designed to provide radio-telephone, telegraph, telex, leased channel and picture services to many places of the world, with transmitters and auxiliary equipments of modern design in addition to the press-cast services

At Chattarpur, a new receiving station was set up The receiving station accommodates directional serials of the latest types The air-conditioned building contains the most modern types of communication receiving apparatus to cover different systems of transmission It also contains up-to-date monitoring frequency checking and other equipment required for efficient running of long distance international radio communication system

The Central Traffic Office at Parliament Street functions not merely as an operating centre for telegraph traffic, it also accommodates (a) photo telegraph equipment of modern design and (b) a studio with modern control and high fidelity microphones and tape-recording apparatus for the purpose of programme transmission service, popularly known as 'voice casts' by correspondents of foreign broadcasting organisations reporting from and to India It houses in addition transistorised automatic error detecting/correcting terminals facilitating error-free telegraph reception The Central Traffic Office is connected with the other transmitting and receiving stations by high speed telegraph channels and telephone lines

Scale Of Operations

The capital city of India is now connected with various cities of the world through modern high-power telegraph and telephone transmitters, diversity receivers, the latest photo-telegraph equipment and long distance overseas telephone and

international telex facilities Started in 1944 as an improvised war-time measure with one telegraph service within the United Kingdom, New Delhi serves at present an important communication artery between India and the world for over 26 years It has direct wireless telegraph services with Moscow, Belgrade, Warsaw, Peking/Shanghai and Bucharest and handles nearly 85 per cent of the Government and 70 per cent of the "Press" traffic in the total overseas telegraph traffic of India It operates several full-time overseas leased telegraph channels for embassies, airlines and meteorological department There is also a direct international telex service to London and via London to over 60 countries A direct New Delhi Moscow telex service has also been introduced It has direct radio photo services with the U K, U S S R, France, Japan, West Germany and Poland It feeds multi-address telegraph broadcasts of Indian news and views to foreign listening posts of Indian missions abroad Direct radio-telephone services from the centre work with the U K, USSR, China and Afghanistan Almost every day it provides programme transmissions to various countries abroad.

Appendix I

Aircraft Movements at Safdarjung Aerodrome

Year	Scheduled flights		Non-scheduled flights		Local Flights	
	Arrival	Departure	Arrival	Departure	Arrival	Departure
1961 . . .	2,157	2,162	785	772	8,895	8,896
1962 . .	1,885	1,901	951	962	9,121	9,120
1963 . . .	1,794	1,810	968	936	18,366	18,365
1964 . . .	1,208	1,221	840	827	18,692	18,692
1965 . . .	1,074	1,092	792	799	18,021	18,021
1966 . . .	20	12	888	874	28,350	28,350
1967 . . .	..	.	1,200	1,179	25,267	25,267
1968 . .	..	..	1,557	1,545	28,417	28,417

APPENDIX II

Air traffic embarked & disembarked at Safdarjung Aerodrome

Year	Scheduled Flights						Non-Scheduled Flights					
	Passengers		Mail (Kgs)		Freight (Kgs)		Passengers		Mail (Kgs)		Freight (Kgs)	
	embarked	dis-embarked	On Loaded	Off Loaded	On Loaded	Off Loaded	embarked	dis-embarked	On Loaded	Off Loaded	On Loaded	Off Loaded
1961	25,102	25,101	1,77,952	2,46,228	1,19,619	10,23,089	3,846	3,974	185	745	3,143	36,768
1962	21,307	22,539	1,43,384	2,54,532	1,15,355	10,16,554	3,019	2,013	310	271	9,219	22,101
1963	16,266	18,669	3,81,322	4,50,274	1,15,605	9,83,527	2,822	2,497	965	824	10,919	21,101
1964	10,895	14,373	1,76,536	2,99,883	67,077	6,35,129	3,222	2,602	1,480	2,541	2,469	13,143
1965	11,215	12,629	1,91,379	2,57,462	71,956	4,01,947	2,597	1,698				
1966	96	143			300	1,402	1,218	582	..			..
1967		..					1,404	832		..	.	..
1968	.						2,389	2,905		.	..	..

APPENDIX III

DELHI (PALAM) AIRPORT

Aircraft movement (scheduled & non-scheduled)

Year	No of Arrivals	No of Departures	Total
1961	5,232	5,224	10,456
1962	6,450	6,428	12,878
1963	6,997	7,086	14,083
1964	7,544	7,644	15,188
1965	8,091	8,103	16,194
1966	9,982	9,949	19,931
1967	12,022	11,979	24,001
1968	12,062	12,260	24,322

APPENDIX IV

DELHI (PALAM) AIRPORT

Passenger traffic on scheduled services

Year	International			Domestic	
	No of Passengers embarked	No of Passengers disembarked	Passengers in Transit	No of passengers embarked	No of passengers disembarked
1961 . .	42,042	38,054	32,238	99,812	99,931
1962 . .	44,860	38,689	20,647	98,238	1,09,740
1963 . . .	47,348	39,996	30,151	1,34,200	1,38,620
1964 . .	64,899	56,437	39,655	1,70,400	1,67,000
1965 . . .	75,774	59,038	49,159	2,08,451	1,97,439
1966 . .	1,00,231	84,236	1,05,337	2,11,543	2,03,063
1967 . .	1,15,748	83,358	1,19,763	2,60,446	2,54,892
1968 . . .	1,16,543	88,587	1,45,779	3,00,683	3,01,689

APPENDIX V

DELHI (PALAM) AIRPORT

Freight traffic on scheduled services

(Freight Tonnes)

Year	International			Domestic		
	On Loaded	Off Loaded	Total	On Loaded	Off Loaded	Total
1961	789	640	1,429	1,181	1,095	2,276
1962	727	631	1,358	5,641	5,581	11,222
1963	866	1,030	1,896	3,424	2,252	5,676
1964	952	1,133	2,085	2,620	1,019	36,039
1965	1,047	1,247	2,294	2,913	525	3,438
1966	1,332	1,191	2,523	2,083	892	2,975
1967	1,566	1,113	2,679	2,584	1,130	3,714
1968	2,183	1,328	3,511	2,901	1,527	4,428

APPENDIX VI

DELHI (PALAM) AIRPORT

Mail carried on scheduled services

Year	International			Domestic		
	On Loaded	Off Loaded	Total	On Loaded	Off Loaded	Total
	Mail (Tonnes)			Mail (Tonnes)		
1961	42	282	324	940	995	1,935
1962	56	381	437	937	591	1,528
1963	58	531	589	1,342	1,159	2,501
1964	63	584	647	1,834	1,410	3,244
1965	70	643	713	1,567	1,001	2,568
1966	76	670	746	1,563	1,330	2,913
1967	108	803	911	1,983	1,580	3,563
1968	126	915	1,041	2,224	1,680	3,904

APPENDIX VII

Scheduled services operated by Indian Airlines connecting Delhi (Palam) Airport with major cities in India as on 31st December, 1969.

Route Operated	Frequency
Delhi—Bombay	4 Daily
Delhi—Calcutta	2 Daily
Delhi—Madras	1 Daily
Delhi—Bombay—Bangalore	Do.
Delhi—Agra—Khajuraho—Varanasi	Do.
Bombay—Ahmedabad—Jaipur—Delhi	Do.
Delhi—Hyderabad—Bangalore	Do.
Delhi—Agra—Jaipur	Do
Delhi—Lucknow—Patna—Calcutta	Do.
Delhi—Chandigarh—Srinagar	Do.
Delhi—Kanpur—Varanasi—Patna—Ranchi—Calcutta	4 Weekly
Delhi—Lucknow—Allahabad—Patna—Ranchi—Calcutta	3 Weekly
Delhi—Kanpur—Lucknow—Delhi	1 Daily
Delhi—Gwalior—Bhopal—Indore—Bombay	Do.
Delhi—Chandigarh—Amritsar—Jammu—Srinagar	Do.
Delhi—Nagpur—Madras (Night Airmail services)	Do.
Delhi—Jaipur—Udaipur—Ahmedabad—Bombay	Do.

APPENDIX—VIII

Scheduled services operated by Indian AirLines connecting Delhi (Palam) Airport with neighbouring countries as on 31st December 1969.

Route Operated	Frequency
Delhi—Kabul	Weekly
Delhi—Kathmandu	4 Weekly

Appendix IX

Scheduled services operated by the Air India connecting Delhi (Palam) Airport with other major cities of foreign countries as on 31st December, 1969

Route Operated	Frequency
Bombay—New Delhi—Kuwait—Rome—Frankfurt—London—New York	Weekly
London—Brussels—Rome—New Delhi—Bombay . .	Do
Bombay—New Delhi—Bierut—Geneva—London . .	Do
London—Amsterdam—Zurich—Teheran—New Delhi—Bombay	Do
Bombay—New Delhi—Teheran—Zurich—Amsterdam—London	Do
London—Frankfurt—Zurich—Cairo—New Delhi—Bombay	Do
Bombay—New Delhi—Teheran—Frankfurt—Amsterdam—London	Do
London—Amsterdam—Geneva—Teheran—New Delhi—Bombay	Do
Bombay—New Delhi—Bierut—Paris—London . .	Do
London—Paris—Beirut—New Delhi—Bombay . . .	Do
Bombay—New Delhi—Moscow—London . . .	Bi-Weekly
London—Moscow—New Delhi—Bombay . . .	Do
Bombay—New Delhi—Bangkok—Hongkong—Tokyo . .	Do
Tokyo—Hongkong—Bangkok—New Delhi—Bombay . .	Do

APPENDIX X

Scheduled services operated by foreign airlines connecting Delhi (Palam) Airport with major cities of foreign countries as on 31st December, 1969.

Name of Airline *	Route operated	Frequency
1	2	3
1 *Aeroflot*	Moscow—Delhi	Weekly
	Delhi—Moscow	Do
	Moscow—Delhi—Singapore—Jakarta	Do.
	Jakarta—Singapore—Delhi—Moscow	Do.
2 *Ariana Afghan Airlines*	Kabul—Delhi	Do.
	Delhi—Kabul	Do.
3 *Air France*	Paris—Tel Aviv—Teheran—Delhi Bangkok—Manila—Tokyo	Do.
	Paris—Rome—Tel Aviv—Teheran—Delhi—Bangkok—Phnom Penh—Hongkong—Tokyo	Do.
	Tokyo—Hongkong—Siem—Reap—Bangkok—Delhi—Teheran—Tel Aviv—Rome—Paris	Do.
	Tokyo—Hongkong—Saigon—Bangkok—Delhi—Teheran—Tel Aviv—Paris	Do.
	Tokyo—Hongkong—Phnom Penh—Bangkok—Delhi—Teheran—Tel Aviv—Rome—Paris	Do.
4 *B O A C*	London—Tel Aviv—Tehran—Delhi—Bangkok—Hongkong—Tokyo	Do.
	London—Tel Aviv—Teheran—Delhi	Do.

* Alitalia has bweekly frequency (1971)

APPENDIX X—*Contd.*

1	2	3
	London—Zurich—Beirut—Delhi—Rangoon—Hongkong—Darwin—Sydeney . .	Weekly
	London—Frankfurt—Beirut—Delhi—Rangoon—Hongkong—Tokyo . . .	Do
	London—Frankfurt—Rome—Delhi—Bangkong—Hongkong—Tokyo . . .	Do.
	London—Kuwait—Bahrain—Delhi—Kualalumpur—Singapore . .	Do
	Delhi—Teheran—Tel-Aviv—London	1 Weekly
	Delhi—Beirut—Rome—London . .	Do
	Delhi—Teheran—Zurich—London .	Do
	Delhi—Bahrain—Beirut—London . .	Do
5 *Ethopian Airlines*	Addis Ababa—Karachi—Delhi . .	1 Weekly
	Delhi—Addis Ababa . . .	Do
	Addis Ababa—Delhi	Do
	Delhi—Karachi—Addis Ababa .	Do
6 *Iraqi Airways* .	Baghdad—Bahrain—Karachi—Delhi	Do
	Delhi—Karachi—Bahrain—Baghdad	Do
7 *Japan Airlines*	Tokyo— Hongkong— Bangkok—Delhi—Teheran—Beirut—Rome—Paris—London	Bi-Weekly
	Tokyo— Hongkong— Bangkok—Delhi—Teheran— Cairo— Rome—Frankfurt—London	1 Weekly
	London—Paris—Rome—Beirut—Teheran—Delhi—Bangkok—Hongkong—Tokyo .	Bi Weekly
	London—Frankfurt—Rome—Cairo--Teheran—Delhi—Bangkok—Hongkong—Tokyo	Weekly

APPENDIX X—*Contd.*

1	2	3
8 *K L M Royal Dutch Airlines*	Amsterdom—Zurich—Athens—Beirut—Kuwait—Karachi—Delhi—Bangkok—Manila—Tokyo	Weekly
	Tokyo—Manila—Bangkok—Delhi—Karachi—Kuwait—Beirut—Athens—Frankfrut—Amsterdam	Do.
9 *Lufthansa* .	Frankfurt—Karachi—Delhi—Bangkok—Hongkong	Do.
	Frankfurt—Athens—Karachi—Delhi—Bangkok—Singapore—Jakarta—Sydney	Do
	Hongkong—Bangkok—Delhi—Karachi—Frankfurt	Do.
	Tokyo—Hongkong—Bangkok—Delhi—Karachi—Rome—Frankfurt .	Do.
10 *Pan American Airways*	Los Angles—Honolulu—Tokyo—Hongkong—Bangkok—Delhi—Karachi—Beirut—Istanbul—Frankfurt—London—New York . .	4 Weekly
	Los Angles—Hongkong—Tokyo—Hongkong—Bangkok—Delhi— Teheran—Beirut—Istanbul—Frankfurt—London—New York	3 Weekly
11 *Antas Empire Airways*	Sydney—Brisbane—Manila—Hongkong—Delhi—Teheran—Rome—London .	Weekly
	London—Rome—Athens—Teheran—Delhi—Hongkong—Manila—Brisbane—Sydney	Do
	London—Vienna—Athens—Teheran—Delhi—Hongkong—Manila—Sydney .	Do
	Sydney—Manila—Hongkong—Teheran—Vienna—London	Do.
	London—Rome—Istanbul—Teheran—Delhi—Hongkong—Manila—Sydney .	Do.
	Sydney—Manila—Hongkong—Delhi—Teheran—Athens—London . . .	Do.

APPENDIX X—Contd.

1	2	3
	London—Amsterdam—Vienna—Bahrain—Delhi—Bangkok—Singapore—Brisbane—Sydney	Weekly
	London—Frankfurt—Athens—Bahrain—Delhi—Kualalumpur—Singapore—Perth—Sydney	Do
12 *Royal Nepal Airlines Corporation*	Kathmandu—Delhi—Kathmandu . .	5 Weekly
13. *Syrian Arab Airlines*	Damascus—Sharjah—Karachi—Delhi .	Weekly
	Delhi—Karachi—Sharjah—Damascus .	Do
14 *Thai Airways* .	Bangkok—Dacca—Delhi . . .	Bi-Weekly
	Delhi—Dacca—Bangkok . . .	Bi-Weekly

APPENDIX XI

List of delivery post offices as in 1972

Sl. No	Name of Post Office	Delivery Pin Code No.
1	2	3
1	A F Rajokri	110038
2	A T Mills	110033
3	Alipur	110036
4	Andrewsganj	110049
5	Arjangarh	110047
6	Badarpur	110044
7	Badli	110042

APPENDIX XI—*Contd.*

1	2	3
8	Bawana	110039
9	Chanakyapuri	110021
10	Chiragh Delhi	110061
11	D H	110011
12	Delhi Cantt	110010
13	Delhi G P O	110006
14	Gandhi Nagar	110031
15	Ganeshpura	110035
16	General Managar Telephones	110050
17	Greater Kailash	110048
18	Gurgaon Road	110037
19	Hazrat Nizam-ud-din	110013
20	I A R I	110012
21	I I T Hauzkhas	110029
22	Jamia Nagar	110025
23	Jhandewalan Extn	110055
24	Jangpura	110014
25	Kalkaji	110019
26	Karol Bagh	110005
27	Kingsway	110009
28	Kirti Nagar	110015
29	Krishna Nagar	110051
30	Lajpat Nagar	110024
31	Lodi Road	110003
32	Madangir	110062
33	Mehrauli	110030
34	Malka Ganj	110007

APPENDIX XI—*Contd.*

1	2	3
35 Malviya Nagar		110017
36 Najafgarh		110043
37 Nangal Raya		110046
38 Nangloi		110041
39 Naraina		110028
40 Narela		110040
41 New Delhi H O		110001
42 Okhla Industrial Estate		110020
43 Palam S O		110045
44 Patel Nagar		110008
45 Punjabi Bagh		110026
46 R P Bhawan		110004
47 Rajinder Nagar		110060
48 Rajouri Garden		110027
49 Rama Krishna Puram		110022
50 Shahdra		110032
51 Sarojni Nagar H O		110023
52 Shakurbasti		110056
53 Shakurbasti R S		110034
54 Tilak Nagar		110018
55 Vasant Vihar		110057
56 Yusaf Sarai		110016

CHAPTER VIII

MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS

The classification of economic activity according to industry, or the means of livelihood, is not clear-cut The variety of occupations in an urban economy, like that of Delhi, is great and it is not possible to assign many an occupation to a particular industrial division Many occupations are common to two or more industrial divisions. Some of these are in the nature of overhead services and some do not serve the production but the consumption processes in the economy Such is the case with most of the Government's administrative and other services Similarly, professional services of doctors, lawyers and a host of agents, *dalals* etc cater to the population in general irrespective of the spheres of economy from which people draw their means of livelihood Apart from this, there is a great variety of marginal occupations which, though they yield low incomes, are performed in all the different spheres of economic activity In this case a person may move from one to another sphere without changing the nature of his work This is especially true of unskilled labour and of all those who cater to the needs of households and individuals An important aspect of all such generalised service occupations common to industry, households and individuals is that they are often undertaken by individuals on their own as what are called independent or self-employed workers In the light of these considerations, the discussion here of miscellaneous occupations will relate to public services professions and also household and personal services The data of the 1951 census has been taken up first and then an analysis in a somewhat more detailed manner of the data of the 1961 census has been done However no attempt to compare the two has been made because the concepts used by the two censuses in their enumerations of workers differ greatly and in the published tables on economic data do not permit adjustment of the data such as would make the occupational classifications comparable In fact, the 1951 census did not classify persons engaged in economic activity according to occupation The classifications relate to the distribution of the total population according to the means of livelihood.

In 1951, of the total population, 1,72,186 persons or less than 10 per cent, were dependent on agriculture which can be taken as a whole to represent a non-miscellaneous occupation.

In the remaining, more than 90 per cent of the population, 5,71,539 persons were engaged in economic activity. Among them, 52,930 persons (or around nine per cent) were classified as earning dependents. Detailed occupations of these earning dependents are not reported and they are thus left out from discussion here An adequate idea however may be formed from the distribution of the remaining bulk of 5,18,609 persons who were engaged in different services and industries as self-supporting workers It is significant that some 42 per cent of these self-supporting workers were working on their own as independent workers The proportion of independent workers in the labour force had increased after 1947 on account of the influx of refugees Initially, the refugees engaged themselves into whatever occupations they could find. In 1951, nearly half the refugees were operating as independent workers in a great variety of occupations suitable to their background Among the non-refugee workers, the proportion of independent workers was about 37 per cent They were engaged mostly in the hereditary caste occupations

The self-supporting persons and, among them, the independent workers were distributed in the different industries and services in 1951 as follows

TABLE 1

Distribution of self-supporting workers according to industry or service

(1951 Census)

Industry or Service	All	Independent workers
1	2	3
Primary industries not elsewhere specified . . .	1,125	961
Mining and quarrying	253	1
Processing & mfg of food stuffs, textile, leather etc .	40,964	15,201
Processing & mfg of metals, chemicals etc. . .	19,054	10,677
Processing & mfg not elsewhere specified . . .	33,741	17,990

TABLE 1—*Contd.*

1	2	3
Construction and utilities	49,626	34,865
Commerce	115,706	92,182
Transport, storage and communications	34,222	11,867
Health, education & public administration	1,32,607	8,509
Services not elsewhere specified	87,614	23,003
	514,912	215,256

Nearly 43 per cent of the independent workers were in commerce, 16 per cent in construction, 11 per cent in the services not elsewhere specified which comprised mainly the household and personal services The proportion of independent workers among all self-supporting workers differs considerably between the different means of livelihood It is as high as 85 per cent in the small group representing primary production but negligible in the smallest group of mining and quarrying Between the remaining groups, it varies from only 6 per cent in health, education and public administration, where by definition, the scope for self-employment is limited, to as much as 80 per cent in commerce, which includes wholesale and retail trade as well as financial activities, and even hawking It is very high also in the sphere of construction and utilities and high in processing and manufacture of metals, chemicals etc, and in processing and manufacturing not elsewhere specified which includes such industries as brick-making, cement, rubber and rubber products, wood and wood products, including furniture and fixtures etc paper and paper products, and printing etc

The occupations followed by independent workers range from collection of cowdung to practice of modern medicine From this great variety, have been listed below some of the important ones which reflect the range of economic activity which individuals undertake on their own, more often than not for want of regular jobs as employees There are however, professions where independent work is often preferred to a salaried job These include the following categories of independent workers

TABLE 2

List of professions, (1951 Census)

Profession	No of Independent workers
Doctors	7,003
Hakims	216
Nurses and mid-wives	121
Lawyers and pleaders	1,882
Commission agents	1,415
Contractors	932
Shroffs	547
Jewellers and goldsmiths	1,688
Ivory workers	912
Agents (estate, insurance, etc)	732
Money lenders	192
Singers, musicians etc	517
Priests etc	273
Astrologers	167
Photographers	417
Painters	883
Petition writers	163

In the remaining lot, there is a concentration of independent workers in the field of transport Of nearly 9,000 independent workers in the field, 2,113 were *tongawalas*, 1,036 cycle-rickshaw pullers, 627 operators of motor-rickshaws, 748 bullock-cart drivers, 367 taxi drivers, 531 pullers of handcarts, 119 workers engaged in transport by camels and asses, and 102 *palki* bearers They were all engaged in road transport, where they formed a proportion of nearly 45 per cent The remaining bulk comprised employees of the public and private bus services, including, at that time, also the tramways.

Numerically important among the remaining bulk of independent workers were the following.

TABLE 3

Occupations of independent workers in trade, industry and personal and household services, (1951 Census)

Occupation	No. of workers
Hawkers	10,703
Construction labourers	10,224
Masons and whitewashers	9,337
Tailors, embroiders, cap-makers	6,272
Carpenters, furniture makers, cot makers etc	6,000
Dhobies, dry cleaners, dyers etc	5,176
Blacksmiths, welders etc.	2,869
Cobblers, leather purse makers, tanners etc	2,739
Potters	2,436
Barbers	2,396
Brick-makers	2,390
Book-binders, cardboard box makers etc.	1,569
Sweepers, etc.	1,225
Repairers of watch, pen, radio, gramophone etc	815
Water carriers	712
Cattle breeders	595
Cycle repairers	415
Toy makers, kite makers etc.	382
Tel malish and ear cleaners	306
Tin smiths	282
Silver leaf makers	213
Band players	211
Gram parchers	160
Oil pressers	150
Chick makers	114
Fishermen	46
Poultry keepers	28
Shepherds	23
Cow dung collectors	11

Apart from construction labourers, brick-makers, masons, blacksmiths and water carriers, the bulk of the remaining occupations are devoted to household or personal services of various kinds, the hawkers among them top the list, followed by tailors, carpenters, *dhobies,* cobblers and barbers Apart from hawkers, there is a large list of retail shops run by independent workers These are classified according to the nature of goods sold as follows

TABLE 4

Independent workers in retail trade, (1951 *Census*)

Trade	No of workers
Foodstuffs, beverages etc .	24,947
Fuel .	2,106
Textile and leather goods . . .	11,379
General merchandise and others	42,216

Finally reference may also be made to the public services which accounted for 1,23,641 workers working as employees, 1796 of whom were the employees of non-Indian Governments The remaining bulk of 1 21,845 employees of the different agencies of the Government were distributed among different governmental agencies as shown below

TABLE 5

Independent workers in retail trade, (1951 *Census*)

Service	No of workers
Medical and Health	9,231
Education	7,227
Police	4,087
Village Officers etc.	118
Municipalities and Local Bodies . . .	10,639
State Government	2,951
Union Government	87,559
TOTAL .	121,845

Taking into account the above employees, working in the administrative and executive departments of the different governmental agencies, and the number of independent workers operating in different industries and services, it makes a total of 3,37,101 workers who might be considered as having followed miscellaneous occupations in 1951 They account for nearly 66 per cent of the aggregate number of workers in industries and services Among these occupations, public service employees constitute the largest single section, with 36 per cent of the total workers pursuing miscellaneous occupations Another about 6 per cent of these workers may be classified under professions like legal and medical practice The remaining 58 per cent are petty shopkeepers, hawkers, craftsmen, unskilled labour and those engaged in rendering personal and household services of all the diverse kinds On the whole, the composition of miscellaneous occupations is indicative of relative deficiency of professions and plethora of marginal service occupations

The census of 1961 switched over from the 1951 concept of earning of income to actual participation in economic activity in its enumeration of workers within the population This is a major change which makes detailed comparison of occupational data between the two censuses difficult From the point of view of focusing attention on economic activity of the people, this was a welcome modification, as it permits a more detailed and more meaningful analysis of the occupational structure Taking up the data relating to non-agricultural sector of the economy here the 1961 census makes a further refinement in respect of manufacturing and processing activity This is classified into two major divisions household industry and non-household manufacturing in factories and establishments of the more modern type According to the census the aggregate working force comprised 8 54 451 persons of which 62 783 were engaged in agriculture either as cultivators or as labourers and 16 710 were in the household industry The remaining bulk of 7 74,958 workers were operating in other industries and services

In the household industry, only 1950, or around 12 per cent of the workers, were classified as employees, the remaining bulk being either employers, independent workers or family workers Bulk of them appear to be small establishments run by self-employed persons, at times with the help of family members The type of production they undertake is indicated by their classification into minor groups on the basis of the standard industrial classification adopted by the Government of India.

TABLE 6

List of household industries, (1961 census)

Manufacture and processing of	No of workers
Shoes and other leather footware & its repair	2,580
Textile garments, including raincoats & headgear	1,933
Earthenware and earthen pottery	1,397
Sundry hardware	964
Jewellery, silver and gold wares	703
Cork, wood, bamboo, cane leaves and allied products	675
Handloom cloth, including *Khadi*	673
Sundry wood product	543
Indigenous sugar, gur and candy	446
Embroidery, crepe, lace and fringes	412
Tin cans and other metal products	410
Wooden furniture and fixtures	352
Iron and steels billets, blooms, tubes, rods etc.	332
Paper bags, boxes, cards, envelopes etc	295
Brass and bell-metal products	257
Cotton yarn	232
Hosiery and knitted fabrics, garments etc	212
Synthetic, plastic, reksin, rubber products	195
Pulp and pulp products	179
Enamelling, galvanizing, plating, polishing etc	162
Sweetmeats, condiments etc	156
Earthen toys and artware	150
Glass products	142
Binding, stitching, sizing etc	123
Bicycle and tricycle assessories	119
Plywood boxes and packing cases	111
Curtains, pillowcases, mattresses etc	103
Others	2,854

Most of these household industries are of the traditional type Cobblers, tailors, potters, handloom weavers, embroiders, binders and paper bag makers, sirki and basket makers, candy and sweetmeat makers etc are all following their traditional hereditary caste occupations There are no new ancillary industries They are all marginal occupations followed for paltry income for want of alternative employment opportunities by traditional craftsmen who have not been able to make headway within the expanding urban economy. Once they had perhaps prospered but the growth of Delhi has emphasized administrative and commercial function more than the industrial and so they have not yet been adjusted to the changing requirements of the expanding economy These are thus the remnants of the past and continue to add to the miscellany of occupations followed by the people of the Delhi Territory Among the marginal occupations, there is an acute problem of modernizing the traditional sector of household industry

The relative importance of single or independent workers and family workers in the rest of the economy is as follows

TABLE 7

Single and family workers in non-agricultural and non-household industry sector 1961

Industry Division	Total workers	Single workers	Family workers	Single family workers
Agriculture, livestock, forestry fishing and hunting	5,067	1,834	1,059	2,893
Mining and quarrying . .	3,599	150	190	340
Manufacturing . .	170,324	37,789	5,173	42,962
Construction	35,360	16,077	—	16,077
Electricity, gas, water & sanitation	2,327	18	—	18
Trade and commerce .	146,727	60,372	10,654	71,026
Transport, storage & communication	49,569	15,226	—	15,226
Service	356,969	56,626	3,981	60,607
Activities not adequately described	5,016	955	73	1,028
TOTAL .	774,958	189,047	21,130	210,177

In the aggregate number of workers pursuing non-agricultural non-household economic activities, there are 189,047 single workers and 21,130 family workers, together accounting for 27 1 per cent of the total If these two categories of single and family workers are added in the household industry, the combined proportion of single and family workers in the non-agricultural working force rises to 28 4 per cent It would appear that the relative importance of self-employed persons had decreased substantially between 1951 and 1961 In 1951, independent workers formed 42 per cent of the self supporting persons working in the non-agricultural economic activity, as compared to the combined proportion of 28 4 per cent formed by single and family workers in 1961

The pattern of industry wise distribution of single workers of 1961 is broadly comparable to the corresponding distribution of the independent workers of 1951 Trade and commerce account for nearly 32 per cent of the single workers, services for 30 per cent and manufacturing for 20 per cent Construction and transport account for 8 per cent each Taken together single and family workers constitute 57 per cent of all workers in the small sector of primary activity included in the above Table, 47 per cent in trade and commerce, 46 per cent in construction, 31 per cent in transport, storage and communication, 25 per cent in the non-household manufacturing activity Their relative strength is marginal only in the case of public utilities including electricity water and sanitation Taking up a more detailed scheme of industrial classification, we arrange the major industrial groups employing single and family workers according to the size of such employment as per table given below

TABLE 8

Major industrial groups employing single and family workers
(1961 *census*)

Industry group	Single workers	Family workers	Total workers
Retail trade .	53,362	9,222	62,58
Personal services	13,839	3,951	17,790
Construction	16,077	—	16,077
Transport, mainly road .	15,209	—	15,209
Miscellaneous textile products . . .	7,497	895	8,392

TABLE 8—*Contd.*

Industry group	Single workers	Family worker	Total workers
Wood products	6,104	361	6,465
Wholesale trade	4,783	1,138	5,921
Non-metalic mineral products (bricks, pottery etc)	4,981	930	5,911
Basic metal products	3,820	563	4,383
Leather products	3,962	299	4,261
Miscellaneous manufacturing	3,139	586	3,725
Transport equipment (mainly repair of cycles, motor cars etc)	2,910	383	3,293
Miscellaneous trade & commerce	2,227	294	2,521
Livestock and hunting (*mainly milch Cattle*)	1,497	893	2,390
Medical services	2,251		2,251
Mfg of food stuffs	1,641	382	2,023
Religious and welfare services	1,680		1,680
Printing and publishing	997	195	1,192
Legal services	1,141		1,141
Recreation services	959		959
Cotton textile mfg (handloom etc)	809	100	909
Educational and scientific services	895		895
Electrical equipment and machinery	653	172	825
Chemical products	591	108	699
Business services	571		571

The lead enjoyed by retail trade is very large, it heads the order of importance claiming nearly 30 per cent of the combined total of single and family workers Personal services, in the second place, claim only 8 per cent and is closely followed by construction with 7 7 per cent and then by transport with 7 2 per cent Among the other 21 industrial groups listed above the proportion varies from less than 0 3 per cent for business services, such as advertising, book-keeping etc , to nearly 4 per cent for the production of miscellaneous textile products like knitted fabrics, embroidery curtains mattresses, carpets etc .

Apart from the above miscellany of occupations followed by single and family workers, the 1961 census gives detailed occupational classification of all workers irrespective of their employment status There were in all 7,91,668 persons working in all industries and services except cultivation, as either employers or employees or single workers, or family workers Their distribution according to broad occupational divisions was as follows

TABLE 9

Occupational classification of persons at works other than cultivation (1961 census)

Occupational division	No of workers	Percent of total
Professional, technical and related workers .	57,562	7 27
Administrative, executive and managerial workers	42,327	5 35
Clerical and related workers .	1,40,335	17 73
Sales workers . .	1,16,489	14 71
Farmers, fishermen, hunters, loggers & related workers	10,049	1 27
Miners, quarrymen related workers	1,373	0 17
Workers in transport & communication	35,143	4 44
Craftsmen, production process workers & labourers	2,80,563	35 44
Service, sport and recreation workers .	1,05,924	13 38
Workers not classifiable by occupation	1,903	0 24
TOTAL .	7,91,668	100 00

Occupations which are defined as miscellaneous for the present purpose, are found in all the divisions into which the aggregate working force is divided above but their relative importance is comparatively much greater in the first division of professional workers, as also in that of administrative and executive workers and of service sport and recreation workers For a clearer view of the position of miscellaneous occupations, we must refer further to the more detailed classifications into group and families of occupations in the National Classification Scheme adopted by the census The above broad classification serves to provide a background to this detailed consideration

The occupational division of professional, technical and related workers with a strength of 57 562 accounts for 7 27 per cent of the total non-agricultural employment This division is sub-divided into 11 groups and 65 families This entire division can be taken to comprise miscellenous occupations More important among these groups and families are the following

TABLE 10

Professional and technical workers (1961 *census*)

Profession	No of workers	(%)
Architects, engineers and surveyors of which	5,248	(9 2)
Civil engineers	1,909	
Electrical engineers	599	
Others	2,740	
Chemists, physicists, geologists etc	606	(1 1)
Biologists, veterinarians, agronomists etc	99	
Physicians, surgeons dentists of which	4,522	(7 8)
Allopathic doctors	1,786	
Ayurvedic physicians	849	
Others	1,887	
Nurses, pharmacists, medical & health technicians of which	6,256	(10 9)
Nurses	2,067	
Pharmacists etc	1,806	
Others	2,283	
Teachers of which	20,287	(35 3)
University teachers	1,713	
Secondary School teachers	5,967	
Middle & Primary School teachers	6,778	
Others	5,829	
Jurists of which	1,832	(3 2)
Legal practioners , advisors	1,459	
Others	373	

TABLE 10—*Contd*

Profession	No. of workers	(%)
Social scientists & related workers of which, . .	6,278	(10·9)
Accountant and auditors . . .	2,817	
Labour & social welfare workers . .	808	
Others	2,653	
Artists, writers and related workers of which . .	4,905	(8 5)
Editors, journalists etc . . .	1,583	
Musicians etc	1,524	
Others . .	1,798	
Draughtsmen and other science & engineering technicians of which,	3 707	(6 4)
Draftsmen	2,221	
Laboratory assistants	592	
Others	894	
Other professional technical workers of which	3,822	(6 6)
Ordained religious workers .	2,321	
Librarians etc .	719	
Others	782	

The above list of 18 specific professions is headed by middle and primary school teachers All teachers taken together account for 35 3 per cent of all professional workers In the second place, medical profession, including doctors *vaids*, nurses and other medical technicians form 28 7 percent of the total These are followed at considerable distance by social scientists with a share of 10 9 per cent and then by architects, engineers and surveyors with 9.2 per cent of the total After adding draughtsmen and other science and engineering technicians to the latter group due representation of the total workers in the engineering professions goes to 15 8 per cent These figures are not strictly comparable to the data of the 1951 census But it is clear that there obtained in 1961 a much greater diversity of professions and the total employment in these varied professions was much larger

The next occupational division relates to administrative, executive and managerial workers, numbering 42,327 in the aggregate Our reference to this division representing 'superior

occupations' is limited to its public sector content. 26,555 or nearly 63 per cent of these workers are classified under the industrial category of other services, the bulk of them being in public services The latter are distributed according to detailed occupations as follows :

TABLE 11

Occupations of administrative, executive and managerial workers (1961 census)

Occupations	No of workers
Central government administrative & executive officials	1,943
State government administrative & executive officials . .	823
Directors managers, working proprietors recreation, entertainment and catering services . . .	3,722
Directors, managers etc other services . .	198
Other such workers	623

The bulk of this superior employment is in the Central Government The Delhi Admn accounts for only over 3 per cent of the total In the remaining three groups too the public sector content is substantial

The above reference to the public sector relates only to superior types of posts since only officials are taken into account The occupational classification does not specify the employing agency for the remaining divisions There are, for example, 1 40 335 clerical and related workers Of these 102,959 are in the division called other services' according to the scheme of industrial classification while the bulk of these clerks are presumably employed in government offices, their numerical strength, or even proportion, is uncertain We may therefore, refer back to the industrial classification for an idea of the relative size of the total public sector employment in Delhi The industrial classification indicates that there were in 1961 some 356 969 workers in other services, 1,68,933 or over 47 per cent of them were in public services, relating to administrative and executive functions of the Government and not to non-administrative activities in such fields, as transport, communication, information

and broadcasting, education, scientific services, health industries, production, construction, marketing etc These administrative and executive workers in the public services were distributed as follows

TABLE 12

Detailed classification of workers in the public services

Class	No of workers
Central Government	1,31,077
Municipalities, and other local authorities	25,295
Police	8,516
State Government	1,015

The corresponding total employment in public services reported by the 1951 census was 105,387 This indicates that there was an increase in these services of about 60 per cent during the decade The corresponding rates of increase are 50 per cent for the Central Government 138 per cent for the local bodies, 109 per cent for the police service and about 30 per cent for the State Government Of the total increase in the employment in public services 68 per cent accrued to the Central Government 23 1 per cent to the local bodies, 7 0 per cent to the police service and only 1 4 per cent to the State Government The outstanding growth of employment in the local bodies is attributable to the reorganization of the local administration which resulted in the creation of the Delhi Municipal Corporation with an expanded scope of its activities

In the remaining bulk of occupations, there are many which can be characterized as miscellaneous occupations They are concentrated in the occupational divisions of craftsmen, production process workers and services, including household and personal services but are found in each of the remaining divisions as well To indicate the relative importance of the different occupations which may be so characterised as the miscellaneous ones, we will list, in the order of importance, the occupational groups with such a content and also identify the families of occupations which may more firmly be considered as comprising miscellaneous occupations

TABLE 13

Relative strength of occupational groups and families in all divisions excepting those of the professional and administrative workers (census 1961)

Occupational groups and families	No of workers: In group	No of workers: In family
1	2	
Labourers not elsewhere classified mainly unskilled .	94,096	..
of which, loaders and unloaders		6,820
Others .		87,276
Salesmen, shop assistants and related workers .	42,705	
of which, hawkers, pedlars and street vendors		18,972
Housekeepers, cooks, maids, and related workers	35,212	
of which, cooks and cook-*cum*-bearers . . .		9,921
Cuttlers, bearers, waiters, maids etc . .		24,176
Ayas		1,115
Building care-takers, cleaners and related workers .	25,432	
of which, cleaners, sweepers and watermen .		24,480
Drivers-Road Transport	24,804	
of which, motor vehicle and motor cycle drivers .		13,535
Rickshaw-pullers and cycle-rickshaw drivers .	..	2,356
Animals drawn vehicle drivers . . .	..	5,803
Drivers unclassified, including *palki* & *doli* bearers .		3,110
Fire fighters, policemen, guards and related workers	22,391	..
of which, watchmen and chowkidars . .		9,523
Tailors, cutters, furriers and related workers .	19,827	.
of which tailors, cutters etc . . .		15,581
Embroiders, darners etc	..	2,123
Bricklayers, plasterers & construction workers (unclassified)	16,790	
of which, stone cutters, carvers, dressers etc .		3,325
Bricklayers, masons, plasterers . .	..	9,861
Carpenters, joiners, cabinet makers etc .	13,067	
of which, carpenters etc		11,305
Compositors, printers, book-binders etc . . .	10,861	
of which, book-binders		2,244

TABLE 13—*Contd.*

Occupational groups and families	No of workers	
	In group	In family
Millers, bakers, brewers etc . . .	10,795	
Of which, dairy workers (Non-farm) . . .		1,694
Bakers, confectioners, candy & sweetmeat makers		6,792
Leather cutters, lasters, sewers etc . .	10,150	
Of which shoe makers and repairers . . .		8,[illegible]65
Launderers, dry cleaners, pressers . . .	9,940	
of which, washermen and dhobies		[illegible],978
Dry cleaners and pressers .		1,962
Farm workers	9,589	
of which, rearers of animals birds		3,[illegible]18
Gardeners (*Malis*)		6,152
Potters, kilnmen glass and clay formers etc	8,474	
of which potters		2,916
Furnacemen rollers drawers, moulders etc	7,194	
of which, blacksmiths, hammersmen etc		4,[illegible]12
Precision instrument makers, watch makers, jewellers etc	6,546	
of which, jewellers, goldsmiths & silversmiths		5,205
Waiters, bartenders etc .	6,[illegible]61	
Barbers, hairdressers, beauticians etc	[illegible],561	
Testers, packers, sorters etc	3,132	
of which, packers labellers etc		2,[illegible]86
Photographers etc	1,[illegible]15	
Tobacco product makers	[illegible]19	
Athletes, sportsmen etc	162	

As classified above there are 23 occupation groups in all, five of which are classifiable as representing miscellaneous occupations, these include waiters and bar-tenders, barbers, hair-dressers and beauticians photographers, bidi makers, and athletes, sportsmen etc together accounting for 12,221 workers Detailed break-up of the other 18 groups into families of occupations further enables us to identify 29 families comprising wholly or very substantially miscellaneous occupations There are on the other hand several other groups and families in whose case it is not possible to identify and measure their miscellaneous content, this is true especially of the residual categories in each division and group, for which specific information about the

nature of work has not been available On the whole, the above listing of groups and families of occupations provides an adequate basis for estimating the volume of employment in miscellaneous occupations The total strength of these five groups and 29 families of occupations is 314,357 workers which constitutes over 45 per cent of the aggregate employment of the eight divisions covered above, or 40 per cent of all non-agricultural workers in the Delhi Territory It will also be seen from the list that the largest group among these so-called miscellaneous occupations comprises of unskilled labourers, including loaders and unloaders who are shown separately More sizeable among the other groups are constituted of 24,480 cleaners, sweepers and waterman 24,176 bearers waiters, maids butlers etc, 18,972 hawkers, pedlars and street vendors, 15,581 tailors, cutters, etc, 13,535 drivers of motor vehicles and motor cycles, 11,305 carpenters, joiners, and cabinet makers, 9,921 cooks and cock-bearers, 9,861 masons, brick-layers, plasterers etc, 9,523 chowkidars and watchmen 8,465 cobblers and shoe-repairers, 7,978 washermen and *dhobies*, 6,792 *halwais* and candy and sweetmeat makers, 6,152 malis 5,803 tongawalas and bullock-cart drivers and 5 205 gold and silver-smiths and jewellers

Finally the three categories of occupations considered above are brought together as follows

TABLE 14

Aggregate working force in miscellaneous occupations (1961 *census*)

Category	No of workers
Professions	57,562
Public services	1,69,933
Al other miscellaneous occupations	3,14,357
	5,41,852

Thus the miscelloneous occupations as defined to comprise the above three categories, account for 541 852 workers measuring 68 4 per cent of the aggregate number of workers in all economic activities barring cultivation The corresponding proportion in 1951 was 66 per cent There was, thus, a small increase in the relative preponderance of such occupations in the economy of the Delhi Territory On striking difference in the position between these two years is that the relative importance

of professions had increased during the decade, professional workers formed 6 per cent of all workers in miscellaneous occupations in 1951 and nearly 11 per cent in 1961

For the period following the 1961 census, available data is upto 1972 from varied sources, including mainly the Directorate of Employment, Training and Technical Education of the Delhi Administration Their classification of workers is equally elaborate but is not quite comparable to that of the census The above discussion thus provides only a general background to that but does not permit us to extend the trend established between 1951 and 1961 into the subsequent period The present discussion must thus relate to the recent period from 1961 onwards as an independent unit period and it is adequate for the identification of the recent trends in employment which includes all miscellaneous occupations considered above

The coverage of the data of the above noted Directorate of Employment is limited in the private sector establishments employing ten or more workers The aggregate working force of the public sector and the private sector establishments of this size increased from 342,732 in 1961 to 5,81,511 in 1972 The **variation in the size of employment differed as follows between the** private and public sectors

TABLE 15

Employment trends in Delhi, 1961-72

Year (31st March)	Public Sector	Private Sector	Total
1961	2,31,557	1,11,175	3,42,732
1962	2,46,952	1,19,680	3,66,632
1963	2,63,681	1,21,082	3,84,763
1964	2,90,542	1,29,368	4,19,910
1965	3,31,635	1,60,525	4,92,160
1966	3,50,584	1,75,047	5,25,631
1967	3,62,894	1,89,667	5,52,561
1968	3,72,796	1,58,373	5,31,169
1969	3,81,653	1,63,051	5,44,704
1970	4,00,403	1,73,146	5,73 549
1971	4,09,341	1,58,641	5,67,982
1972	4,25,997	1,55,514	5,81,511

About the public sector which is here represented in full strength it must be noted that the 1961 employment is considerably greater than the employment in public services noted from the census earlier The reason is that the present data includes, in addition to the public services, all other workers engaged in the public sector development and welfare establishments The total employment in the public sector increased in the course of about a decade by over 69 per cent, while the corresponding rate of increase for the private sector was about 40 per cent

Within the public sector the different official agencies experienced the increasing trend in employment as shown below·

TABLE 16

Employment trends in different public sector branches, 1961-72

As on 31st March	Central Goverment	Delhi Administration	Local bodies	Quasi Govt establishment
1961	1,44,132	25,814	31,008	23,538
1967	2,00,418	40,884	83,667	37,925
1968	2,02,578	43,010	87,201	40,007
1969	2,04,579	44,241	90,338	42,195
1970	2,07,595	47,106	93,092	52,610
1971	2,10,561	52,717	89,876	56,187
1972	2,27,441	53,883	82,192	62,481

The increasing trend of employment had operated continuously in all the branches of the public sector The rate of increase varied from year to year and in each year from one to another branch The overall rate of increase during the above period was 58 per cent for the Central Government, 109 per cent for the Delhi Administration, 165 per cent for the quasi-Government authorities and as much as 165 per cent for the local bodies.

A more detailed break-up of the public sector employment for 1964 and 1966 indicates the occupational composition to be as follows

TABLE 17

Occupational classification of the public sector employment as on 30th Sept, 1964 & 1966

Occupational division	1964		1966	
	No of employees	% of total	No of employees	% of total
Professional, technical & related workers	57,200	17.5	71,339	20.00
Administrative, executive & managerial workers	9,264	2.8	8,909	2.50
Clerical & related workers	86,301	26.4	90,832	25.46
Sales workers	1,671	0.5	1,936	0.54
Farmers etc	3,039	0.9	4,786	1.34
Miners, quarrymen etc	266	0.1	212	0.06
Workers in transport & communication	31,660	9.7	28,207	7.91
Craftsmen & production process workers	31,280	10.5	33,693	9.14
Service, sport & recreation workers	22,395	6.9	24,900	6.98
Unskilled workers	80,686	24.7	91,796	25.74
TOTAL	3,26,765	100.0	3,56,711	100.00

Occupations of superior types account for only about a fifth of the total public sector employment This proportion has increased in recent decades, thanks to the relative increase in the number of professional and technical officials employed by the Government agencies mainly in the field of economic development Officials performing routine administrative and executive functions continue to be numerically a very small group; their proportion above is less than 3 per cent The largest proportion is constituted by the clerical and related workers which are closely followed by unskilled workers Clerks and unskilled workers together form a clear majority within the public sector employment.

The enlarged scope of government activity, emphasing its participation in the economy for securing comprehensive economic and social development is further reflected in the distribution of the public sector employment according to industry

TABLE 18

Distribution of public sector employment according to industry groups as on 30th Sept 1964

Industry	No of workers	
Manufacturing	14,108	
Construction	25,191	
Trade and commerce	9,277	
Transport, storage & communications	87,270	
of which, railways	.	47,285
Road transport	..	16,307
Post, telegraph, telephone	..	15,497
Other	..	8,181
Public Services	1,90,919	
of which utilities-gas, electricity, water, sanitation	..	11,652
Educational service	..	19,580
Medical & health service	..	10,754
P F, insurance & banking	..	7,752
All other services	..	121,171
	3,26,765	

Purely administrative and executive functions, including maintenance of law and order, account for about 37 per cent of the total public sector employment in Delhi Another 3 6 per cent are engaged in the utilities which is exclusively a government function in any urban economy Social services of education, health etc account for another 15 4 per cent, while road transport, mainly comprising the bus service in the metropolitan area employs about 5 per cent of the total The three industries listed first in the above Table represent the extension of the scope of government activity into the urban economy, their combined share in the total public sector employment is about 15 per cent

We may conclude with a reference to the category of self employed persons, which conforms to the 1961 census definition of single workers and the 1951 census definition of independent workers The review is based on the findings of a study conducted by the Directorate of Employment and Training of the Delhi Administration in 1965 The objectives of this study were to determine the number of self-employed persons and analyse employment trends relating to such workers The study attempted a comparison of the position between 1960 and 1965 Their estimates for these two years for different types of activities conducted by self-employed workers are as follows .

TABLE 19

Self employed persons

Occupation	1960	1965
Shops	56,900	64,600
Road transport	26,200	27,600
Medical	5,000	7,700
Legal	1,500	2,600
Insurance	4,000	4,000
Brokers	1,500	2,000
Milk dairymen	5,200	4,800
Hawkers	20,400	24,000
Labourers	11,500	20,000
Barbers sweepers, *dhobies etc*	68,000	90,200
	2,00,200	2,47,500

In the course of the five year period covered by the study, there was an increase of 23 6 per cent in the total number of self-employed persons Among the different occupations listed above, the number of milk dairy men recorded, a decrease, this decline is attributed to the establishment of the Delhi Milk Scheme which began meeting the public demand to a very large extent Outstanding increases recorded by other occupations are 73 5 per cent for unskilled labour, 73 0 per cent for the legal profession, 54 0 per cent for the medical profession, 33 3 per cent for brokers and 32 6 per cent for those engaged in personal and household services like barbers, *dhobies*, sweepers etc.

Taking up the 1965 aggregate of self-employed persons, we may indicate relative importance of different occupations among them as follows

TABLE 20

Number of self-employed persons in different occupations 1965

Occupations	No of workers
1	2
Shops and establishments—	
Registered shops	
Provisions stores	9,882
Cloth merchants	3,748
General merchants	4,529
Jewellery shops	1,241
Barbers shops	1,535
Others	31,728
All	52,663

1	2	
Unregistered shops	8,000	
Hotels and restaurants	3,937	
Total shops and establishments		64,600
Road Transport—		
Cycle, rickshaw pullers	2,135	
Tonga drivers	3,042	
Rehra drivers	1,245	
Bullock-cart drivers	2,056	
Hand-cart pullers	4,066	
Taxi and auto-rikshaw drivers	15,056	
Total road transport		27,600
Medical Professions—		
Allopathic doctors	850	
Dentists	257	
Ayurvedic physicians	2,153	
Unani Physicians	500	
Homoeopathic doctors	288	
Other practitioners	2,000	
Pharmacists etc	500	
Nurses etc.	1,000	
Others	152	
Total medical professions		7,700
Legal professions—		
Lawyers, pleaders etc.	1,500	
Clerks & munshis	900	
Petition writers stamp vendors etc	200	
Total legal professions		2,600

1	2
Insurance Agents . . .	4,000
Brokers	2,000
Milk dairymen . . .	4,800
Barbers	1,200
Hawkers—	
Fruits, vegetables, meat, fish etc .	2,480
Ice-cream and soda etc . .	620
Gram parchers . . .	79
Milk and milk products . .	1
Cosmetics, edible oil etc . . .	32
Refrigerated water . .	110
Bakery products	857
Hand reharies for eatables	1,523
Newspapers etc	2,000
Others hawkers, kabaries etc . .	15,408
Total hawkers	24,000
Labourers .	20,000
Washermen	2,255
Sweepers . .	17,000
Rest (including carpenters, blacksmiths, *mochis*, white washers, writers, photographers etc)	49,446

For want of accurate data, the study had to resort to a considerable amount of estimation The data about most of the traditional crafts, like those of masons, carpenters, black-smiths are not easy to procure But the general picture of a plethora of occupations requiring little training of skills is strikingly revealed Among the above occupations, the only occupations that cannot be considered as marginal are those of medical and legal professions and also of financial agents and brokers For the rest we have petty shop-keepers, *tongawalas*, craftsmen unskilled labourers, sweepers, barbers, *dhobies*, hawkers and *kabaries*, etc

CHAPTER IX

ECONOMIC TRENDS

Firm data for appraisal of economic trends are limited to the recent past Sketchy evidence relating to some aspects is available for short periods of the past going back to the First World War The presentation of these data will be divided in three parts. The first deals with the level of prices, wages and standard of living, the second with employment, industry classification of workers and occupations, and the third with the progress of planning since 1951.

Prices

The long-term trend of the general price level is clearly upward The trend of Delhi prices had evidently moved in sympathy with the all-India trend depicted by the index numbers of wholesale prices based either on the Bombay or on the Calcutta market This has been true particularly since the beginning of the present century thanks to the establishment of rail links beween Delhi and the port cities of Bombay, Calcutta and Madras Delhi may accordingly be said to have witnessed a long term rising trend in prices in the course of the present century, which was slow to begin with Important among the shorter term breaks in the upward movement of prices were the two periods of general depression, the first extending from 1921 to 1924 and the second from 1930 to 1936

Referring to an earlier period from 1914 to 1928 we may, by way of illustration, indicate the price movements for selected commodities as shown in the following Table

TABLE 1

Index numbers of prices of selected commodities

(Base . 1912-1914=100)

Commodity	1915	1919	1923	1928
Wheat	128	176	117	136
Rice	100	165	129	220
Gram	117	217	103	165
Salt . . .	100	155	194	133
Sugar .	64	129	156	304

Source : Census of India 1931, *Report Vol XVI, P* 21

Compared to the pre-war years, prices were generally higher in the years immediately preceding the great depression The largest increase was recorded by sugar which, in the latter years, was over thrice as costly The second highest increase was recorded by rice which was more than twice as costly On the other hand, the increase in the price of wheat, as also of salt, was moderate

The next period witnessed the impact of the world wide depression which affected the Delhi market with greater intensity on account of its being the most important outlet for export of grain from Punjab and Western U P The course of the index for the prices of cereals including rice and wheat indicates that the bottom was reached in 1933 when the prices were reduced to almost a half of the 1929 level Slow and halting recovery which followed 1933 still kept the prices in 1939 at a level 30% below that of 1929 The following Table, taking the depression year of 1930 and pre-war year of 1939, illustrates how the movement of prices were characterised by large seasonal variations during that period

TABLE 2

Range of annual wholesale prices of selected commodities, 1930 *and* 1939

(Per maund)

	1930		1939	
	Min Rs P	Max Rs P	Min Rs P	Max Rs P
Wheat	2 12	3 94	2 53	4 53
Rice	7 50	10 75	4 75	5 87
Gram	2.78	4 09	3 80	4 44
Sugar	11 89	12.75	12 50	16 42

The 1939 prices are generally higher The notable exception is rice, which was considerably cheaper in 1939 These figures do not, however, indicate any general change in the extent of seasonal variation The range of variation had increased considerably for sugar and somewhat also for wheat but in respect of both rice and gram it was greatly reduced

The next period up to 1949 was one of continual rise in the general price level In 1944 the price of wheat was on the average Rs 11 per maund as compared to Rs 3.50 in 1939; of gram, Rs. 7 75 as compared to Rs 4, of rice, Rs 18 50 as compared to Rs 5 25, and of sugar, Rs 26 50 as compared to Rs 14/- In 1949, the price of wheat was somewhat lower but of gram, rice and sugar were all slightly higher Comparing 1949 with 1939 food and clothing etc were found in the former year to be costlier by more than 200 per cent, while fuel and lighting were costlier by nearly 400 per cent The general consumer price Index with 1939 as base had reached in 1949 a level of 344

From 1949 onwards we get more detailed data about prices The overall changes in the price level are, however, adequately reflected by the consumer price index numbers for industrial workers which are reproduced below

TABLE 3

Consumer price index numbers for industrial workers (monthly average)

Year	Food	Fuel & lighting	House Rent	Clothing, bedding & footwear	Miscellaneous	All items
Weights	57 04	9 06	6 40	11 28	16 22	100.00
1949	329	472	100	326	388	344
1950	396	502	100	391	328	344
1951	439	460	100	434	345	353
1952	434	477	100	455	357	373
1953	431	458	100	419	348	366
1954	419	440	100	440	352	359
1955	384	403	100	444	352	340
1956	444	434	100	480	355	377
1957	463	437	100	498	366	391
1958	464	398	100	508	370	390

As the index for all items indicates, the rising trend was carried forward up to a peak of 373 in 1952, this was on account of the general inflationary trend associated with the Korean War boom Thereafter a short-lived spell of decreasing trend intervened bringing the index down to 340 Then followed the rise in the general price level which was induced by the Second Five Year Plan's resort to inflationary finance in respect especially of capital intensive development projects By 1958, the index had reached a level of 390 Among the different categories of expenditure, the cost of food, and also clothing, recorded substantial increases over the decade

The above period is notable for price controls in respect particularly of articles of daily consumption The prices of principal commodities for years between 1943 and 1952 do not therefore adequately reflect the forces of demand and supply Table No 4 gives the maximum and minimum average monthly prices for a larger number of commodities of daily consumption, including some which were not evidently subject to control, for selected years of the period

It will be seen that in both 1944 and 1949, the extent of variation of monthly average prices was nominal for the staple foodgrains while other articles of daily consumption like milk, potatoes meat and fish exhibited very large short term variations in prices In the case of staple foodgrains, the seasonal variations were resumed in 1954 In that year the range of variation was Rs 10 for wheat and Rs 11 for rice The position evidently is repeated in 1959 at the higher general level of prices reached in that year, the range of variation for rice was Rs 8 and for wheat Rs 11 50

For the recent period one can refer to the latest series of consumer price index numbers for the industrial workers with 1960 as the base These are reproduced in Table No 5

TABLE 4

Range of annual wholesale prices of certain selected commodities in Delhi during the years 1944, 1949, 1954, *and* 1959

(Prices per maund)

Commodities	1944		1949		1954		1959	
	Min	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max
Wheat	10 09	11 62	10 12	10 12	11 00	21 00	14 00	25 50
Gram	7 00	8 42	10 06	13 25	7 00	17 50	11 00	23 50
Jawar	6 00	8 00	13 50	17 00	5 00	15 00	10 00	17 50
Bajra	6 75	8 37	14 00	18 00	7 50	13 00	11 00	17 50
Barley	5 00	7 12	7 25	7 25	7 00	13 31	10 00	16 50
Rice	15 55	21 96			14 00	25 00	20 00	28 00
Sugar	25 00	28 00	33 00	38 75	30 19	39 50	38 00	44 00
Gur	8 84	8 86	11 00	40 00	12 00	23 00	16 00	28 00
Ghee (Pure)	148 00	175 00	210 00	235 00	165 00	208 00	200 00	235 00
Potatoes	3 00	35 00	2 25	30 00	3 50	20 00	6 00	17 00
Meat	32 00	45 00	42 00	60 00	55 00	56 00	60 00	75 00
Fish (local)	1 50*	2 50*	50 00	80 00	25 00	140 00	30 00	100 00
Milk	16 00	20 00	20 00	36 00	14 00	26 00	20 00	30 00

*Rates per seer (retail)

TABLE 5

Consumer price Index for Industrial workers in Delhi

(Monthly average for calendar months)

Year or month	Base 1960=100 (New Series)							Estimated general index on base		
	Food group	Pan, Supari, tobacco & intoxicants group	Fuel & light group	Housing group	Clothing, footwear bedding group	Miscellaneous group	General index group	1939=100	1944=100	1949=100
Weight (1)	54 1 (2)	33 1 (3)	5 5 (4)	6 0 (5)	12 2 (6)	19 1 (7)	100 00 (8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
1961 .	102	108	110	100	105	103	103	436	167	127
1962 .	106	114	116	105	112	107	108	448	172	130
1963 .	110	122	120	109	113	112	111	459	176	134
1964 .	131	128	122	114	115	118	125	514	197	149
1965 .	143	130	130	115	121	126	134	552	212	160
1965										
April	139	126	127	115	119	124	131	540	207	157
May .	137	128	128	115	119	125	130	535	205	155

June .	139	128	128	115	119	125	132	545	209	158
July .	143	130	130	115	119	126	134	553	212	161
August	147	132	130	115	122	127	137	564	216	164
Sept. .	146	132	131	115	121	125	137	564	216	164
Oct. .	144	133	132	115	121	129	135	556	213	161
Nov. .	145	131	134	115	122	130	137	564	216	164
Dec. .	147	131	133	115	121	131	138	569	218	165
1966										
Jan .	146	134	134	117	123	131	138	606*	232*	176*
June .	164	146	139	117	129	136	150	658	252	191
1970 .	214	182	183	155	173	174	195	856	328	248
1972 . .	231	229	223	167	203	203	218	955	366	277
1973 (June) .	275	231	228	171	228	226	250	1096	420	.18

*These estimated im lices have been calculated on the basis of revised factor given effect from January, 1966.

Source : Labour Bureau · Simla

Evidently the inflationary trend has been continuous The impact of the engagements at the military level with both China in 1962 and Pakistan in 1965 are reflected in the trend of prices. The general index reached a peak of 134 in 1965 Thereafter, the monthly figures indicate a continuous increase from May 1965 onwards From 130 in that month, the general index rose to a peak of 150 in June 1966 In the latter month the general price level was over six and a half times the corresponding level of 1939, two and a half times of the one of 1944 and nearly two eight times the one of 1949 Over a period of 20 years prices had thus risen in Delhi by more man five and a half times Confining attention to the years covered by the Table, it will be seen that the largest increase was recorded by the food group This was followed by tobacco and intoxicants and then by fuel and lighting and clothing group.

Wages

The data available for delineation of trends in wage rates is even more sketchy For the textile industry we have a continuos series going back to the 1950's Apart from this, scattered material relates to selected years of the earlier period. This is dealt with chronologically in the following pages

The 1931 census report gives the following Table showing average monthly wages for selected categories of labour for four specified periods *viz*, (1) pre-War period, 1912-14, (2) post-War period, 1919-21, (3) the succeeding period of 1922-24 and (4) the pre-depression period from 1925-28

TABLE 6

Average wages of selected categories of workers

Class of workers	Pre-war period 1912-14	Post-war period 1919-21	1922-24	1925-28
1	2	3	4	5
Monthly	Rs a. p.	Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a p
Driver	30-8-0	47-0-0	42-8-0	45-0-0
Mistri	45-0-0	68-0-0	60-0-0	65-0-0
Oilman	16-0-0	22-0-0	18-0-0	21-0-0
Fireman	20-0-0	32-0-0	27-8-0	30-8-0

1	2	3	4	5
Carpenter	30-0-0	58-0-0	48-0-0	54-0-0
Mason .	30-0-0	47-0-0	40-0-0	45-0-0
Blacksmith	27-0-0	46-8-0	41-0-0	45-0-0
Turner	20-0-0	34-0-0	30-8-0	32-0-0
Moulder .	21-8-0	37-8-0	33-0-0	35-8-0
Weaver	Not available	63-0-0	56-8-0	60-0-0
Spinner	Do	34-0-0	29-8-0	32-0-0
Dyer	Do	Not available	25-0-0	27-0-0
Mochi	Do	25-8-0	22-0-0	24-8-0
Reeler .	Do	22-0-0	18-0-0	19-0-0
Fitter	35-0-0	52-0-0	46-8-0	50-0-0
Drawer .	Not avilable	26-8-0	20-8-0	22-0-0
Press Distributer	20-0-0	27-0-0	21-8-0	22-0-0
Press Compositor	25-0-0	35-0-0	26-8-0	30-0-0
Warper .	Not available	40-8-0	36-0-0	38-0-0
Sizer	Do	40-0-0	34-8-0	38-0-0
Bleacher . .	Do	Not available	19-8-0	22-0-0
Folder	Do	25-8-0	20-0-0	24-0-0
Potter	Do	Not available	33-8-0	36-0-0
Thread Baller	Do	Do.	19-0-0	22-0-0
Carver	30-0-0	50-0-0	36-8-0	40-0-0
Embroiderer	20-0-0	30-8-0	25-0-0	28-0-0
Painter	16-8-0	25-0-0	21-8-0	24-0-0
Doffer . .	Not available	15-0-0	12-8-0	14-0-0
Daily				
Coolies (men) . .	0-7-0	0-12-0	0-9-0	0-10-6
Coolies (women) . .	0-5-0	0-8-0	0-7-0	0-7-0
Coolies (minor) . .	0-2-6	0-4-0	0-3-0	0-4-0

It will be seen that the post-war general level of wages was considerably higher than the one prevailing before the War. Amongst the categories of workers covered in the above Table, the largest increase in wages accrued to carpenters whose average monthly wage was Rs 58 in the later period as compared to Rs 30 in the pre-war years. Other categories showing more

substantial improvement are those of *mistris*, blacksmiths, fitters, carvers as well as unskilled workers working on daily wages The post-war period was followed by a declining trend during 1922-24 This trend was reversed and the wage level for 1925-28 was higher, though it is clear that it was still below that of the immediate post-war period All the different categories enjoyed higher wages in 1925-28 as compared to the pre-war period of 1912-14

For the next period covering the Great Depression and the Second World War, no firm data on wage rates are available We thus refer to the report of the Labour Investigation Committee of the Government of India, published in 1946, which contains some data about the situation in 1944 The inflationary trends had then already set in and general shortages of necessities of life including food and clothing, had grown acute The general rise in prices was followed after a time lag by increase in the wage rates in the form of dearness allowances According to this report, the general practice was to pay dearness allowance at a flat rate to all categories of workers which varied from Rs 30 to Rs 32 per month between different factories The report illustrated the position by directing attention to the textile industry, in which the workers were distributed according to the level of average daily basic wage as follows

TABLE 7

Per cent distribution of workers according to average daily basic wage

Average daily basic wages (In annas)	% of total workers
4—6	0 41
6—8	5 45
8—10	18 31
10—12	14·07
12—14	11 97
14—16	7.56
16—18	3 39
18—20	8 98
20—24	3 98
24—28	11.83
28—32	10.73
32+	8 41

On the basis of the above distribution, it would appear that the average daily wage per worker in 1944 was 1 Rupee 3 annas. But the distribution is quite uneven and more than 60 per cent of the workers earned less than this amount and a quarter of them earned less than half the amount If we compute monthly average earnings on the basis of these figures, it amounts to about Rs 36 This represents, however, the basic wage

As estimated on the basis of the preceding Table (No. 6), the average monthly wage in 1925-28 was only slightly less than Rs 36/- The conclusion thus emerges is that the wage level had not significantly improved even after a period of 15 years covering the depression and the Second World War We must add however, that dearness allowances did partially alleviate the position of workers in the war and the post-war years This is illustrated in the following Table which gives average daily basic wages and average daily net earnings, including dearness allowance

TABLE 8

Average daily net earnings of workers in textile industry, 1944

Occupation	Average daily basic wages			Average daily net earnings		
	Rs	As	Ps	Rs	As	Ps.
Drawing Tenters	1	6	0	2	11	2
Intermediate Tenters	1	0	0	2	4	6
Roving Tenters	0	13	4	2	2	4
Ring Doffers . .	0	9	3	1	13	5
Frame Doffers .	0	9	2	1	13	4
Ring Double Siders	1	11	0	2	5	6
Ring Full Siders	0	12	10	2	0	10
Winders .	0	8	11	1	10	2
Pirn Winders	0	9	11	1	13	3
Grey Winders	0	11	9	1	15	2
Cone Winders	0	10	0	1	13	5
Weavers (one loom)	1	1	7	2	3	1
Weavers (two looms) .	1	10	11	2	13	5

The basic wage was on the average about a rupee, while the net average earning per worker for these catgories comes to Rs 2 2 As The allowances were thus a little more than the amount of basic wage According to the report of the Labour Investigation Committee, the net earnings in the textile industry ranged from Rs 1 12 As to 2 4 As.

From 1946 onwards, we get a continuous series of figures showing average annual earnings of factory workers drawing less than Rs 200/- per month in the Indian Labour Gazette These are reported below for the period 1947-57

TABLE 9

Average annual earnings of workers, 1947—57

Year	Average annual earnings (in rupees)
1947	877.7
1948	1,047 3
1949	1,028 4
1950	1,061 6
1951	1,292 6
1952	1,340 5
1953	1,279.6
1954	1,319 5
1955	1,345 3
1956	1,466 9
1957	1,493 4

The trend of wage rate appears to be upward excepting in 1949 and 1953 The 1953 drop was substantial and it took two more years for the level to recover its 1952 level

The Indian Labour Gazette of March, 1958 gives indices of nominal earnings (including bonus) for both Delhi and the country as a whole, which permits a comparative idea of trend in wage rates for Delhi These figures are given below

TABLE 10

Indices of nominal earnings of Industrial workers, 1947—56

Year	Index No for Delhi	All India Index
1947	100	100
1948	121	120
1949	122	134
1950	131	132
1951	170	141
1952	170	152
1953	169	151
1954	170	152
1955	175	159
1956	191	163

The divergence of the Delhi wage rates from the all-India level became conspicuous after 1950 which marks the beginning of the planning era and the consequent increase in the development activities in Delhi This divergence has since been maintained The divergence apparently resulted from the great spurt experienced by the level of wages in Delhi in 1952. Independently considering the Delhi series, it will be seen that during the First Plan period the wage level was reasonably stable In 1956 there was another spurt in the level, the index showing more than a 90 per cent increase as compared to the level of 1947

One can refer also to the wage movement in the cotton textile industry which accounts for bulk of the industrial labour in Delhi

TABLE 11

Index earnings of textile workers 1947—56

Year	Average annual earnings (in rupees)	Index
1947	894	100
1951	1,568	175
1952	1,122	128
1953	1,504	168
1954	1,549	173
1955	1,525	171
1956	1,671	187

The trend of the wage rates in textile industry departs from the corresponding trend for all industries taken together only for a short duration around 1952 The textile index in this year showed a rather sharp decline as compared to the stability of the latter index for all industries For the textile industry, this was a disturbed year and the loss of working days on account of strike was considerable

For a comparative idea of how wage rates differed from industry to industry the average earnings for 1955, 1956 and 1957 are given below

TABLE 12

Average annual or daily earnings of workers in different industries 1955, 56 and 57

Industry	Average earnings (in rupees)		
	Annual		Daily
	1955	1956	1957
Textiles	1,464	1,607	5 11
Footwear etc.	1,224	1,076	4 18
Wood, Cork etc	970	1,108	3 90
Furniture & Fixtures	1,183	1,342	4 88
Paper	1,187	918	3 91
Leather	1,654	1,853	2.96
Rubber	747	1,413	2 52
Chemicals	649	507	3 99
Petroleum and coal	808	994	6.68
Non-metallic minerals	1,356	1,327	2 72
Basic metal	622	723	3 70
Metal products	842	1,027	3.30
Machinery	800	951	4 27
Electrical machinery	1,085	1,166	4 09
Transport and transport equipment	1,355	1,308	6.93
Miscellaneous	1,982	2,099	4 45
Electricity, gas etc	1,203	1,199	5 75
Water and sanitary services	1,829	1,924	4 23
Personal services	1,109	1,458	4 81
All Industries	1,345	1,467	4 89

Of the 19 categories covered by the Table, 13 show a rising trend for these two years, the amount of increase in average annual earning being the most substantial for rubber and rubber products and very pronounced for personal services On the other hand, workers in footwear and 'other weaving apparel' and

also paper and paper products industry record a sizable reduction in earnings The relative position between different industries appears, however, to be unchanged The highest earnings go to workers in miscellaneous occupations, water and sanitary services and leather industry, and the lowest to workers in chemicals basic metal products and machinery (except electrical goods) etc

For 1957 figures indicating daily average earnings per worker have been given above The ranking of the industries, according to these figures, is quite different from the corresponding ranking according to annual earnings for 1955 and 1956, this difference is evidently attributable to variation between industries in the total number of working days in an year Daily wage rate here varies only from Rs 2 52 in rubber and rubber products to Rs 6 93 in transport and transport equipment Apart from the latter, this rate exceeds Rs 5/- for workers in petroleum and coal, electricity and gas, and the textile industry At the other end, the wage rate is less than Rs 3/- for workers in non-metallic minerals and the leather industry

A feature of wage payments which has continued ever since the introduction of dearness and other allowances to meet the inflationary trends in the closing years of the Second World War is the break-up of total or net earnings into a number of well-defined categories viz, basic wage, dearness allowance, bonus, and money value of concessions Relative importance of these constituents is indicated below for 1956 and 1957

TABLE 13

Constituents of net earnings of industrial workers—1956, 1957

	1956	1957
Basic wage	60 3	59 5
D A and other allowances	33 1	34 4
Bonus	5 9	5 1
Sundry payments (arrears, money value of concessions etc)	0 7	0 7
	100 0	100 0

The basic wage remains sticky and increase in earnings takes the form mainly of dearness allowance This has continued up to the present, when basic wage has been greatly reduced in relative importance and dearness allowance, which is revised from time to time to meet rising level of prices, constitutes the main bulk of earnings In 1968 average month earnings in textile industry comprised basic (minimum) wage of Rs 40 only and dearness allowance of as much as Rs 148.

Since 1948, most of the industries have been brought under the purview of the Minimum Wages Act The procedure has been to issue notification for each individual industry specifying minimum rates of wages for all the different categories of workers employed in that industry This is illustrated by the following Table which gives for selected industries the number of establishments, their total employment and range of 'minimum wages' fixed for the different categories of workers

TABLE 14

Employment and minimum wage rates in selected industries

Industry	No. of establishments	No of employees	Range of wage rate (in Rs.)	
			Maximum	Minimum
Agriculture	—	—	60 00	37 50
Construction		60,000	56 24	30 00
Public Motor transport	..	4,900	87 00	60 00
Flour and dal mills	230	2,500	110 00	31 00
Foundaries	80	1,700	97 00	54 00
Printing presses	1,100	6,200	94 50	52 50
Automobile engineering	170	2,000	97 00	60 00
Local authorities	10	11,000	385 00	66 00

These figures are only illustrative Comparison between different industries is not possible because specification about the scope of earnings differs from industry to industry and at times, it suffers from lack of clarity In the case of the local bodies,

which show the highest level of wages, the notification explicitly mentions that the minimum wages are to be inclusive of the cost of living allowance For the other industries, the position is not clear It is possible that the large differential between local authorities and any of the other industries is explained by the inclusion in the notified wage rates for the local authorities of these allowances

For indicating the more recent trend we refer to the data relating to employees earnings less than Rs 400/- per month as given below

TABLE 15

Average annual earnings of factory employees earning less than Rs 400 per month

Year	Average daily employment	Total wage bill	Average earnings
	('000)	(Rs '000)	(Rs)
1958	52	73,098	1,107
1959	55	79,124	1,134
1960	57	92,768	1,628
1961	61	101,615	1,655
1962	65	1,17,772	1,819
1963	68	1,20,375	1,736
1964	47	93,390	1,961
1965	57	1,24,214	2,193
1966	70	1,62,101	2,321

Obviously, the wage bill has been increasing at a faster rate as compared to the growth in the size of total employment In consequence, average annual earnings per worker rose between 1960 and 1966 by 42 per cent It is important to note in this connection that the system of adjusting dearness allowance at rates varying with the prices level results in a correspondance of the two trends of prices and wages In practice, the revision

of wage rates is not completely automatic so that the increase in wage rate follow the rise in prices after a time lag and a differential between prices and wages remains a continuous feature As compared to the above noted 42 per cent increase in wages between 1960 and 1966, the consumer price index for industrial workers had risen by 47 per cent

The correspondence between the movement of wage rate and prices is very well illustrated by the following comparison between consumer prices and wage rates in the textile industry

TABLE 16

Movement of prices and wage rates of the textile industry

Year	Monthly wages (in Rupees)			Consumer price index for industrial workers Base 1960=100
	Basic	D A	Total	
1962 . . .	40 0	74 76	114 76	107
1963 . . .	40 0	75 60	115 60	111
1964 . .	40 0	86 60	126 60	125
1965 . .	40 0	97 23	137 23	134
1966 . . .	40 0	140 00	154 16	147
1967 . .	40 0	135 50	175 50	168
1968	40 0	147 82	187 82	178

Thus the consumer price level rose between 1962 and 1968 by over 66 per cent, while the corresponding increase in monthly wages in the textile industry was 63 per cent. The textile industry dominates Delhi's industrial structure and is characterized by a powerful trade union movement Such a close correspondence of trend between wages and prices is not, however, shown by other industries

We may finally indicate also how wage rates differ among different industries on the basis of a more detailed tabulation of per capita annual money earnings of employees earning less than Rs 400/- per month for the two years of 1965 and 1966

TABLE 17

Average annual earnings in different industries 1965 *and* 1966

Industry	Per capita annual earnings in Rupees					
	*1965			1966		
	Public sector*	Private sector	Total†	Public sector	Private sector	Total
Processes allied to agriculture		971	971		1,066	1,066
Food (except beverages)	2,403	1,646	1,787		1,715	1,715
Beverages		1,982	1,982		1,298	1,298
Textiles	.	2,229	2,229		2,604	2,604
Footwear etc		1,450	1,450		1,997	1,997
Wood Cork etc	2,484	1,199	2,218	2,605	1,469	2,133
Furniture	1,739	1,632	1,661	1,900	1,803	1,820
Paper and paper products	—	1,025	1,025		1,173	1,173
Printing etc	3,856	2,772	3,287	3,775	2,390	2,927
Leather and products	..	1,156	1,156	.	792	792
Rubber and products		1,064	1,064		1,139	1,139
Chemicals	2,757	2,067	2,174	4,519	1,936	2,185
Petroleum products		2,931	2,931	4,090	3,664	3,739
Non metallic minerals		1,115	1,115		1,133	1,133
Basic metal		1,866	1,866		1,446	1,446
Metal products		1,378	1,378		1,476	1,476
Machinery		2,058	1,632	1,753	1,692	1,702
Electrical machinery	2,768	949	1,478	3,049	1,940	1,993
Transport equipment	2,907	1,397	2,501	3,191	1,563	2,697
Miscellaneous	2,516	1,216	2,418	2,816	1,450	2,657
Electricity Gas etc	2,301	2,633	2,478	2,432	3,261	3,016
Water, sanitation etc				2,214	—	2,214
Personal services		1,608	1,608		1,768	1,768

*Public sector includes Government and local Fund Factories and excludes railway and defence establishment

†Per capita combined income of workers in Public and private sectors

Wage rates in the public sector factories are in all cases substantially higher but the relative importance of such employment is marginal except in the case of the blanket group of miscellaneous industries Considering the wage rates in all industries it will be seen that the rate varied in 1966 from only Rs. 792 in leather industry to a maximum of Rs. 3,739 in the

petroleum products industry The average wage for all industries was Rs 2,321 in this year Apart from the petroleum products, five other industries record wages higher than this average namely, the public utilities like electricity, gas etc, the textiles, the miscellaneous, the transport equipment, and the printing industry At the other end, we have, apart from the leather industry, several industries where the rate is less than half the average, these are non-metallic minerals, rubber products and processes allied to agriculture

Consumption Pattern And Standard Of Living

Review of variation in consumption pattern or standard of living over a long historical period is not possible for want of information of income and expenditure of households Delhi had seen days of Moghul grandeur and pageantry for nearly three centuries after it was founded as his capital by Shahjahan After the shifting of the capital of the British Empire from Calcutta to Delhi in 1912, it began re-acquiring some of its old glamour The independence in 1947 and the establishment of the Indian Republic in 1950 completed this process and once again it is the scene of grandeur and pageantry now of a democractic republic The intervening period helped it to acquire new functions, of a premier transport mode and of modern factory industry Today, Delhi's triple functions are the central administration of a truncated but unified and much more populous country, the servicing of commerce and trade as a dry port, handling all imports and exports of the northern and central zones, and the manufacture of a variety of consumers and producers goods It is undoubtedly a prosperous city and its people enjoy comparatively high standards of living While this is true, it is dfficult to have a quantitative idea of how high the general standard precisely is, we may still attempt a broad appraisal of the position on the basis of the scanty data relating to incomes and family budgets

With regard to the trend prior to the Second World War, a comparison of wage rates and consumer prices between 1912-14 and 1925-28 indicates that the general level of consumer prices had risen over this period by 50 per cent while the rise in wages was of the order of 45 per cent This suggests that the standard of living had tended slightly to decrease The difference, however, is marginal According to the report of the 1931 census, rates of wage fluctuated to some extent with variations in prices and cost of living The compensatory variation of wages in response to price increases did not fully result into stabilization of living standards

In the following period, the comparative position was reversed and prices, especially of agricultural commodities, which form the main bulk of the consumption requirements of the common man, tended to decrease at a faster rate and so living standards of wage earners did probably improve This improvement cannot, however, be considered as a net advantage to the working class taken as a whole because the precise impact of the depression on total employment is difficult to measure The general conclusion that sounds to be valid on *a priori* grounds is that the urban population found itself into a very favourable situation during the depression as compared to the rural and agricultural population which supplied the principal necessities of life

Thereafter, the closing years of the Second World War initiated inflationary trends which have progressively impinged on the living standards of the masses While these trends were nation-wide, Delhi remained not only involved but had the privilege of experiencing them earlier than the rest of the country This has been, in effect, a period of incomes chasing prices, through the instrument of dearness allowances It is thus not possible to assume that any material improvement in living standards has taken place during this period Even so it is apparent that Delhi of 1970 is not the one of 1946 or of 1939 Apart from the increase in population and expansion of the settlement, there is evidence of change in the style of living reflected in the activity of conspicuous consumption, which has not only expanded at a faster rate but has also changed markedly in qualitative content This is evident in almost all walks of life, in the dress of the people, in the public and private means of conveyance, in the channels of communication, in the variety of outdoor entertainment, in the diversity of catering in restaurants and eating places etc The event, which, to a great extent explains these marked visible changes in outdoor life of the people, was the absorption of displaced persons on a massive scale into Delhi's population in 1947-48

With regard to the pattern of consumption expenditure, refer first to the report of the Deshpande Committee on the enquiry into family budgets of industrial workers in Delhi city The data on family budgets were collected in two parts by the sample survey method, the first related to factory workers and the second to the workers in cottage industries The results of first survey are given in a summary form in the accompanying Table 18

TABLE 1[illegible]

Income and expenditure of a working class family by income groups
(1943-44)

Monthly income Groups (Rs)	No of budgets	Average No of persons per family	Average monthly income per family	Total monthly expenditure	%Distribution of monthly expenditure					
					Food	Fuel and lighting	House rent*	Clothing & Footwear	Household requirements	Miscellaneous
Below 30	9	2 44	24-9-6@	34-1-9@	62 65	9 73	6 60	12 34		8.68
30-40 .	47	3 04	34-0-5	40-12-9	60 29	9 96	7 38	11 58	1 07	9.71
40-50 .	101	3 14	41-1-1	45-0-7	61 00	9 76	7 59	10 80	0 98	9 .87
50-60 .	121	3 51	53-13-1	53-3-6	62 0[illegible]	9 55	6 47	10 34	1 31	10 26
60-70 .	95	3 83	63-0-4	57-8-5	61 76	9 05	6 08	9 43	3 05	10.63
70-80 .	69	4 01	73-14-6	66-4-3	60 87	8 43	5 96	9 70	4 17	10 87
80-90 .	42	4 83	83-15-8	74-5-10	61 35	8 57	6 16	8 66	2 16	12 80
90-100 .	37	4 54	93-4-2	80-14-10	62 67	8 00	5 59	8 00	4 72	11.02
100 and above	60	4.86	127-11-1	97-15-2	57 96	7 37	6 15	7 34	7 34	13 75
All Incomes	581	3 80	66-4-11	60-9-6	60 98	8 84	6 35	9 13	3 27	11 43

*On the basis of 540 family budgets where the workers actually paid house rent
@ In Rs annas pies

On the average, the family of industrial workers in 1946 comprised 3 8 persons, earned Rs 66 30 per month, of which they spent Rs 60 60 Monthly average saving per family may thus be said to have been Rs 5 70 or less than 10 per cent of income At lower levels of income, there is clearly a sizable excess of expenditure over income, for the lowest group of workers with an income of less than Rs 30/- per month the income deficit amounted to nearly Rs 10/- As we move up the income ladder, this deficit is reduced progressively and is turned into a small excess for those with monthly income between Rs 50/- and Rs 60/- There-after the excess increases progressively to as much as Rs 30/- for the group of workers with income of Rs 100/- or more per month

The distribution of expenditure on different items is typically representative of a consumption pattern of people living on very low standards As much as 61% of the total is spent on food. Relative importance of this item does not vary significantly between the income groups About the same proportion of expenditure is allocated to food by the two groups of those with monthly income of less than Rs 30 and those with income ranging from Rs 90 to 100/- Only the group in the highest income bracket, of Rs 100/- or more, record a somewhat smallest proportion of expenditure on food At the other end, expenditure on miscellaneous items representing expenditure over and above the amount needed for meeting bare necessities of life account for only 11 4 per cent of the total This proportion varies between the income group from only 8 7 per cent for those with monthly income of less than Rs 30 to 13 8 per cent for those with income of Rs 100/- or more The amount of such monthly expenditure on miscellaneous items is less Rs 3 for the former group but exceeds Rs 13 for the latter group

Among the factory workers, there was a group comprising what may be called single-member households as distinguished from the noted families of two or more members Workers who lived singly had a somewhat different consumption pattern On the average such a single-member working class family spent 57 4% of their budget on food, 9 9% on fuel and lighting, 6 9% on house rent, 6 8% on clothing and footwear, 4 9% on household requisites and 14 1% on miscellaneous items As compared to the average position of multi-member families, a single worker spent larger proportions of his budget on miscellaneous items, household requisites and house rent and fuel and lighting, and smaller ones on food and clothing His consumption pattern

resembled more with that of the families with a monthly income of Rs. 100 or more than those of the other income groups into which the workers are divided in the preceding Table.

With regard to the workers in cottage industries, the inquiry noted their comparative position as follows.

TABLE 19

Comparative consumption pattern of factory and cottage industry workers (1943-44)

Items of family budget	% distribution of total expenditure of families	
	Cottage industries	Factory establishments
Food	61 7	61 0
Fuel and lighting	8 9	8 8
House rent	7 8	6 4
Clothing and footwear	9 8	9 1
Household requisites	2 4	3 3
Miscellaneous	9 4	11 4

The two patterns are broadly similar. Comparing the pattern for cottage industry workers with patterns for different income of factory workers, the similarity is closest between cottage industry workers and factory workers in the income group of Rs 60 to Rs 70 Both of these patterns show the proportions spent on miscellaneous items and household requisites to be smaller than the corresponding proportions in the pattern for the group of factory workers taken as a whole. Correspondingly food, fuel, clothing and house rent claim somewhat larger shares in the budgets of cottage industry workers, who may, on that account, be considered to be comparatively less well-off.

Next we may refer to the report of an enquiry into the family budgets of middle class employees of the Central Government, published in 1948 This report provides information concerning the 1944 consumption patterns of middle class families in Delhi, which are summarised below

TABLE 20

Consumption patterns of middle class employees of the Central Government, 1944

	% of total expenditure					
	Rs 100 to 150	Rs 150 to 200	Rs 200 to 250	Rs 250 to 300	Rs 300 & above	All
Food	40.5	41.6	38.8	37.9	37.0	38.0
Fuels	6.0	6.2	5.2	4.8	3.1	4.8
Clothing	10.6	10.0	8.5	8.5	9.0	9.0
Furniture & household requisities	0.8	2.7	3.6	2.9	2.3	2.6
Housing	8.5	7.9	9.1	7.5	6.5	7.4
Miscellaneous	33.6	31.6	31.5	38.1	11.1	38.2
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

The highest percentage expenditure on food occurs in the lowest income group, the percentage declines steadily as we move to higher income groups, it being lowest for the highest income group The percentage for fuel is highest for the second lowest income group, but declies steadily as we move up to higher income groups, it being the lowest for the highest income group Clothing takes the largest share in the lowest income group declines thereafter and is at a minimum in the middle income group then rises again for the highest income group, (for which it is, however, lower than for the lower income groups) The percentage figures for furniture etc, are irregular, rising steeply up to Rs 200 to Rs 250 income group, falling fairly steeply thereafter, but it remains much higher than the one for the lowest income group Somewhat surprisingly, the percentage for housing is the highest for the middle income group and lowest for the highest income group The report explains, "This is perhaps due to the fact that most of the people in the higher income group now occupy quarters of the lower type " Expenditure on miscellaneous items in all cases takes the largest share of total expenditure after food The percentage figure varies irregularly but it generally increases with increase in income

More detailed break-downs of the budget indicates that milk and fats account for 40% of the average expenditure on food for all income groups taken together; it is the highest for the lowest income group (44 7%) and is 40% or above for all income

groups Next in importance are cereals, and fruits and vegetables, accounting for 16 5% and 17 4% respectively of expenditure on food by all income groups taken together With the two lower income brackets, cereals and vegetables are of almost equal importance, with the Rs. 200 to Rs 250 income group, cereals are relatively more important correspondingly, with the two upper income brackets, vegetables and fruits are more important The most important item included in the "miscellaneous" group is provident fund and insurance charges, which account for one-fifth of the expenditure on miscellaneous items taking all income groups together

Broadly comparing the different items of consumption expenditure between the budgets of the middle class government employees and industrial workers, it is seen that the consumption pattern of industrial workers is much more strongly food-biased What a middle-class family "saves" on food is almost entirely diverted to the "miscellaneous" group, which, moreover, includes a much larger variety of items Dietary habits, too, show a marked divergence The industrial worker's food consumption is predominated by cereals, while the middle class family's food consumption is, on the other hand, strongly biased in favour of milk and fats

Inquiry into the family budgets of industrial workers was repeated after a lapse of over 15 years in 1958-59 On the basis of a sample of 743 working class families, this inquiry revealed a somewhat smaller size of average family, higher average monthly income and expenditure, and significantly also a somewhat smaller proportion of the budget devoted to food The comparative results of the two inquiries are summarised as follows

TABLE 21

Comparative levels of consumption for industrial workers, 1943-44 and 1958-59

	1943-44	1958-59
	1	2
No of budgets	581	743
Average family size	3 80	3 46
Adult consumption units	3 12	2 82

TABLE 21—*Contd.*

	1	2
No of earners per family	1 34	1 12
Average monthly family income	66 31	123 69
Average monthly family expenditure	60 59	134 83
Per cent expenditure on food	60 98	51 07
Per capita monthly income	17 45	35 78
Per capita monthly expenditure	15 94	39 04

These figures suggest that the 1958-59 position showed a marked improvement over the one of 1943-44 Per capita income of industrial working class was revealed by tht later inquiry to have increased by more than 100 per cent This was mainly accounted for by the increase in the family income but partly also on account of reduction in family size The improvement is adequately reflected in the saving of about 10 per cent points in the share of budget going to food, which was now available for other items of expenditure

For the same year, we have the data also of the Middle Class Family Living Survey which covered Delhi as one of 45 places to which this all-India inquiry related. This inquiry covered a sample 1070 middle class families in Delhi (Delhi-New Delhi town group) A middle class family was defined as one which depended mainly on income derived from paid non-manual employment in the non-agricultural sector The scope of the inquiry was much wider than its predecessor of 1945-46 referred to earlier In so far as Delhi is concerned, the survey found the average family size to comprise three members, average number of employees per family to be 1 17 and the average monthly expenditure per family to be Rs 388

Among the 45 places covered by the survey, monthly average family expenditure is the highest for Delhi In the order of magnitude Delhi is followed by Bombay with Rs 380 and Calcutta with Rs 354 as average monthly family expenditure In per capita terms, Delhi's expenditure was Rs. 87 per month as compared to Rs 88 for Bombay, Rs 71 for Calcutta and Rs 71 also for Madras The itemwise distribution of monthly average family expenditure for these four cities has been as follows

TABLE 22

Summary of middle class family budgets—Delhi, Calcutta, Bombay and Madras

Item	Monthly average family expenditure in Rs							
	Delhi		Bombay		Calcutta		Madras	
	Amt	%	Amt	%	Amt	%	Amt	%
Food beverage etc	158 06	40 71	147 85	38 81	149 15	42 10	136 34	42.07
Fuel & light .	14 26	3 67	14 23	3 74	12 86	3 63	14 46	4 46
Clothing etc .	57 46	14 80	45 48	11 94	31.38	8 86	38 35	11 83
Housing, Household requisites and services .	55.78	14 37	52 93	13 89	66 49	18 77	47 52	14 66
Miscellaneous . .	102 71	26 45	120 45	31 62	94 40	26 64	87 43	26 98
TOTAL	388 27	100 00	380 94	100 00	354 28	100 00	324 10	100 00

The consumption pattern of the middle class families in Delhi compares favourably with those of Calcutta and Madras The one of Bombay, however, may be said to score over Delhi since food in the Bombay pattern claims a somewhat smaller proportion and the miscellaneous items, indicative of greater diversification of consumption, claim as appreciably larger share in the total family budget

Confining attention to the Delhi pattern, we may note that the more inclusive 1958-59 inquiry yielded a pattern of consumption which cannot be said to be an improvement over the earlier (1945-46) inquiry, which was limited to middle class government employees The two patterns can be compared as follows

TABLE 23

Middle class consumption patterns, 1945-46 and 1958-59

(Per cent distribution on expenditure)

Item	1945-16	1958-59
	Central Govt employees	All
Food etc	38 0	40 7
Fuel etc	4 8	3 7
Clothing	9 0	14 8
Housing etc	10 0	11 4
Miscellaneous	38 2	26 4

The 1945-46 consumption pattern of middle class government employees is decidedly better than the latter pattern for the middle class as a whole While there is a considerable lapse of time since the former inquiry was undertaken, it can be taken

to indicate the comparatively favourable situation of the government servants in Delhi The pattern of their consumption expenditure indicates that the major share of their monthly budget is spent on the so-called 'miscellaneous' items which go to make life richer and diversified in experience

To supplement the above review of the middle class and working class family budgets, we refer to the results of the Delhi city survey which was conducted by the Institute of Economic Growth at the instance of the Research Programme Committee of the Planning Commission in 1956-57 This was a comprehensive survey designed to study in detail the impact of migration on the life of people in Delhi The survey classified the sample households in three categories according to the migration status of the head of household It was found that the resident or non-migrant households formed 35 2%, refugee households accounted for 40 5% and other migrant household claimed 24 3% of the total sample The average size of household for these three categories was 5 3, 4 6 and 3 3 members respectively Their comparative economic position is reflected by Table 24 on household income and expenditure

The proportions of income spent on the current maintenance of the household varies between the sections over a small range extending from 80 5% for the immigrant to 90 8% for the refugee section The resident section locates itself in this range somewhat closer to the immigrant section Compared to the respective proportions in the disbursement of income for the sample as a whole, the resident section records smaller proportions for all items excepting food; the refugee section, higher for all items excepting that of the 'other expenses', and the immigrant section smaller for food, clothing and fuel but larger on items of rent and 'others' Of the refugee and resident sections, between whom no material difference obtained in size either of income or the household, the resident spends less of income on all items than the refugee, the smallness, it may be added however, is not quite significant in extent except for rent and food

With regard to the new item of outgoing remittances, if we take the sample as a whole the average amount of outgoing remittance per household comes to Rs 7 4, accounting for only 4 1% of the amount representing average income of the sample households. In effect for an average household in the sample the balance of income left after meeting household expenses is reduced from Rs. 26 1 to Rs. 18.7 by something like 28%

TABLE 24

Disbursement of average monthly household income

		Resident		Immigrant		Refugee		All	
		Rs	%	Rs	%	Rs	%	Rs	%
Income		178 7	100 0	188 5	100 0	176 9	100 0	180 8	100 0
Expenditure	Food	83 4	46 7	75 6	40 1	88 8	50 2	82 7	45 7
	Clothing	15 1	8 4	13 8	7 3	16 3	9 2	15 1	8 4
	Fuel	8 7	4 9	7 7	4 1	9 2	5 2	8 5	4 7
	Rent	9 3	5 2	16 1	8 5	10 8	6 1	12 1	6 7
	Others	**34 5**	**19.3**	**38 6**	**20 5**	**35 5**	**20 1**	**36 3**	**20 1**
	TOTAL	151 0	84 5	151 8	80 5	160 6	90 8	154 7	85 6
Remittances out-going)		3.8	2 1	15 3	8 1	3 1	1 7	7 4	4.1
Balance		23 9	13 4	21.4	11.4	13 2	7 5	18 7	10.3

The average amount of savings, net of outgoing remittances, measures thus only 10% of the amount of average income per household for the sample as a whole. It is in respect of outgoing remittances that the immigrant section beats the other two by a large margin in terms of both amount and of the proportion this amount constitutes in household income Its balance of income is reduced by over 42% from Rs. 36.7 to Rs 21.4 or from 19 5% to 11.4%. Between the resident and refugee sections average remittances differs but to only a small extent But after meeting this demand on income, a much larger proportion of income is left in the resident section to represent current savings The proportion of income left to represent savings is indeed the largest, among the three sections, in the resident section It is enabled to record this better showing not because its income level is higher but because its household expenditure, as compared to the refugee section, and the remittances it sends out, as compared to the immigrant section, are smaller

With this we conclude the discussion of the consumption pattern which is taken to reflect the standard of living The latest quantitative estimates presented here relate to 1958-59 These were published in 1965 No new data have since been published. But if we consider the crucial relationship between the trend of consumer prices and the trend of wages, there is no evidence to suggest any improvement in living standards in general In fact these recent years have been characterised by continued inflationary trends and family incomes have lagged behind rise in prices The 1958-59 position thus may safely be assumed to have continued, if not worsen somewhat The pressure of rising prices, especially of food grains since 1965, on the middle class standard of living, which are based on incomes received in the form of salaries has in fact grown acute in recent years. In this regard industrial workers, whose incomes are in practice more frequently revised upward in sympathy with rising levels of consumer prices, are comparatively better situated than the middle class salaried earners The principal benefit from the inflationary rise in prices accrues to the small class of people earning incomes in the form of profit

Livelihood Pattern

The term 'livelihood' was used by the 1951 census to characterise the economic activity of people in preference to what is called 'the industry and occupational classification' of workers,

comprising all persons within the population, who are economically active Livelihood classification of the 1951 census population can, however, be made comparable to the industry classification of workers in the 1961 census Similarly, the corresponding data of the earlier censuses too can be made comparable to the 1961 data Accordingly, we will indicate the trend of economic activity in the Union Territory of Delhi by review of the changes in the livelihood or industrial pattern of active workers during the period 1901 to 1961 on the basis of the census data The two aspects of economic activity of the population we must refer to in this connection are (i) working force participation rate and (ii) distribution of workers according to industry or livelihood class

The working force participation rate indicates the extent of population's participation in economic activity and is defined as a percentage of the population who had been reported to be working or earning any income either as self-supporting persons or as earning dependents

TABLE 25

Proportion of workers in male and female population

		Male	Female	Both
Urban	1901			44 1
	1911			44 9
	1921			44 7
	1931	64 7	7 6	41 0
	1951	59 1	5 4	36 1
	1961	52 6	4·5	31·7
Rural .	1931	58 00	25 9	44·4
	1951	57·8	17 4	39 3
	1961	47·9	22·0	35·7
Territory . .	1931	61 2	13 4	42 2
	1941	59·3	3·0	38 2
	1951	58 9	7·7	36 6
	1961	52 3	6 5	32 1

The proportion of workers in the population appears to have steadily declined in both the rural and urban areas In the urban area for which we have data from 1901 onwards, the decline extended from 44 7 per cent in 1921 to 31.7 per cent in 1961,

while in the rural area, it extended from 44.4 per cent in 1931 to 35.7 per cent in 1961. The decline has been common to both the male and the female population. In the urban area, the female working force participation rate decreased from 7 6 per cent in 1931 to 4 5 per cent in 1961. The corresponding decrease in the male population was from 64.7 per cent to 52 6 per cent. In the rural area, the female participation rate has all along been higher In this case, there was a decrease between 1931 and 1951 followed by an increase between 1951 and 1961 For the male population in the rural area, the decrease, however, has been continuous A very partial explanation of the general decrease in participation rate is found in the change in the age structure in favour of infants and children. Much of the decrease has been due probably to increase in urbanization of the Union Territory

With regard to the distribution of workers according to the nature of economic activity, the census office have attempted to reclassify the population of earlier censuses according to the classification system adopted in the 1961 census These figures are given in Table 26

It is evident that the change in the composition of the working force for the Union Territory has been of the same nature as the change in the composition of the working force in its urban areas The only difference is in relative slowness of the change for the Territory as a whole We may thus confine our attention to the change in distribution of the urban working force for an idea of the nature of change in the economy of the Union Territory

The first three classes, representing agriculture and primary activity related to agriculture, have suffered a progressive reduction in their relative importance, the combined proportion of these three industrial categories was as high as 12 2 per cent in 1911 This came down to 0 7 per cent in 1951, and to 1 6 per cent in 1961

In 1901, manufacturing activity, including the household industry, claimed the largest proprotion of the working force. There was a progressive reduction in this proportion from 40 per cent in that year to only 18 2 per cent in 1951, this was followed by an improvement to 22 5 per cent in 1961 The construction activity which forms a small part of the secondary sector, on the other hand, improved its relative position from only 2 6 per cent in 1901 to 11 1 per cent in 1951. Thereafter, in the final decade

TABLE NO 26

Per cent distribution of workers according to industry

		I Cultivators	II Agricultural labour	IIIA Live-stock forestry fisheries etc.	IIIB Mining-quarrying	IV+V Household and other manufacturing	VI Construction	VII Trade commerce	VIII Transport storage communication etc	IX Other Services
Urban	1901	1 5	0 4	2 2		40 0	2 6	22 4	5 00	25 9
	1911	7 8	2 6	1 1	0.7	29 2	7 1	19 6	6 7	25 2
	1921	2 4	0 3	4 5	0 1	22 8	8 4	21 8	7 0	35 7
	1931	1 9	1 0	2 8	0 2	21 9	6 5	17 2	8.4	40 0
	1951	0 3	0.1	0.3	0 1	18 2	11 1	24 5	6 5	38.9
	1961	0 7	0 2	0 7	.	22 5	4 4	19 3	6 3	46 0
Territory	1911	32 3	8 9	1.9	0 6	20 1	3 5	12 1	3 5	17.1
	1921	19.1	2.7	1.8	0 1	21 6	6 7	18.1	5.9	24 0
	1931	19 9	4 1	2.3	0 2	19.7	5 4	14.4	7 1	26 4
	1951	7·4	2 2	0 3	0 1	17 3	7 9	19 8	5 7	39 3
	1961	6 5	0 9	0 6	0 4	21.9	4 1	17 2	5.8	42.6

there was a reversal of the trend bringing its share down to 44 per cent.

There remain the three categories of trade and commerce, transport, storage and communications, and other services The first of these recorded changes over time but did not register any significant improvement over the period as a whole. The last blanket category of other services, which comprised professions of all types as well as household and personal services of all types, recorded, on the other hand, a progressive improvement in its relative share of the total economic activity. This increase was from 25.9 per cent in 1901 to 40 per cent in 1931 and further to 46 per cent in 1961 The distribution for 1961 indicates that other services claimed the largest share, it is followed by manufacturing activity with a share of 22 5 per cent and then by trade and commerce with a share of 19.3 per cent

The broad change in the economy of the Union Territory can also be indicated by collapsing the above Table to form three broad economic sectors, namely, the primary sector comprising cultivators, agricultural labour, livestock, forestry, fisheries etc mining and quarrying, the secondary sector comprising the household and other manufacturing activity and construction, and the tertiary sector comprising trade and commerce, transport, storage and communications, and other services

TABLE 27

Per cent distribution of workers by broad sectors

		Primary I+II+III	Secondary IV+V+VI	Tertiary VII+VIII +IX
Urban . . .	1911	12 2	36 3	51 5
	1921	4 3	31 2	64 5
	1931	5·9	28 4	65 4
	1951	0 3	29·3	69 9
	1961	1 6	26 9	71 5
Territory	1911	43 7	23 6	32 7
	1921	23.7	28 3	48 0
	1931	27 0	25 1	47 9
	1951	10 0	25 2	64 3
	1961	8 4	26 0	65 6

In the Union Territory, considered as a whole, there was a progressive reduction in the relative importance of primary activity and a progressive improvement in the tertiary activity The secondary activity claimed in 1961 somewhat larger share in the total as compared to 1911 but a smaller share as compared to 1921

More profound change had occurred in the urban part of Delhi Here the tertiary sector showed a progressive improvement of its share from 51 5 per cent in 1911 to 71 5 per cent in 1961 The other two sectors suffered a progressive decrease, the primary sector from 12 2 per cent in 1901 to 1 6 per cent in 1961 Thus urban Delhi was pre-occupied in 1961 mainly with tertiary activity including services, and trade and commerce

The progressive decrease in the working force participation rate noted earlier indicates that the working force had tended to increase at a slower rate as compared to the total population The distribution of workers, according to industry, further suggested the changing character of the economy of the Union Territory The same figures may also be taken to indicate shift of workers within the economy between different industries or livelihood classes If we consider individual decades, shift from one to another industry is indicated by reduction of workers in an industry only in a few instances In 1901-11, such a reduction amounted to 19 per cent in manufacturing, including household industry, 9 per cent in mining and quarrying and 3 per cent in trade and commerce During the same decade, there was a substantial increase in the working force in agriculture and construction

The next decade records on the other hand, a shift from agriculture to other industries, there was a net addition of 31 624 to the total working force, of this, 21,827 were added in 'other services' alone In contrast, cultivators were reduced by 4 651 and agricultural labourers by 2,216

Apart from the above, there was during the period 1931 to 1951 further reduction in the primary sector, of 1752 in cultivators, 1,522 in agricultural labourers and 3,634 in mining and quarrying Over this period, there was, however, a net addition to the total working force which amounted to as much as 3,33,418 of which 'other services' claimed 1,27,445, trade and commerce, 95,333, and manufacturing, 53,894 workers.

In the final decade of 1951-61, there was a net addition of 2,31,624 workers Of the individual categories, construction recorded in this decade a reduction of 24,508 or 43%. Major gain accrued here to other services and manufacturing, the former adding 143,271 and the latter, 73,991 workers to their working force

If we consider the period from 1901 to 1961 as a whole, there was no reduction in any of the industrial categories We cannot, therefore, say that there was any shift of workers from say agriculture to other occupations in absolute numbers The relative importance in the process of growth of the working force, however, differs sharply from industry to industry As compared to 1901, there were in the total labour force 6,55,978 more workers in 1961 3,19,926 or 46 8% of them were classified in the blanket category of 'other services' which comprised public service, personal services and professions etc 1,31,408 or 20 0% of the additional workers were classified under manufacturing, including household industry, and 123, 428 or 18 8% of them were added to the working force in trade and commerce At the other end, additions to agricultural labourers, cultivators, and miners and quarrymen were nominal On the whole, shift in the relative importance was in favour of 'other services' which accounted for 42 6% of workers in 1961 as compared to 17 1% in 1901, at the cost of cultivators, agricultural labourers, and miners and quarrymen, whose share in the total was reduced to 6 5, 0 6 and 0 6 per cent in 1961 from 32 3, 8 9 and 1 9 per cent in 1901 respectively

The above discussion of the economic trends is based solely on the contribution of the human factor to the economic processes It is therefore inconclusive in the sense that it tends to under-estimate the improvement in the performance of the economy which is determined also by how other factors of production change *pari passu* with the human factor and how all the factors integrated in carrying out the economic activity A better indicator of economic trend would be gross product or income Data about income generated by the economy of Delhi are not available for any long period of time An important reference we must refer to in this connection is a study of state income of Delhi which was undertaken at the time of the preparation of the Delhi Master Plan This study takes the immediately preceding quinnquennium of 1951-56 as a reference period and examines the variation in the total State income of Delhi in the course of that period

According to this study, net income originating with in the Union Territory of Delhi was Rs. 1,065 million in 1951-52 and Rs. 1,462 million in 1955-56 There was thus an increase of 37.2 per cent in state income between 1951 and 1956 During the same period, population of the Territory was estimated to have increased from over 1 7 million to nearly 2 2 million and so per capita income had increased by only 9.1 per cent from Rs 611 to Rs 666 Further, the labour force engaged in economic activity had increased during the period by 28 6 per cent The conclusion is thus reached that out of a total increase of Rs 396 6 million in the state income during the period, three-fourths were due to the increase in the working force, and the remaining one-fourth to other factors, such as the increased productivity of labour and capital, and changes in the price level With regard to the latter factor of changes in the price level, there was during this period a fall in the general level So, when adjusted for price changes on the basis of the working class consumer price index numbers the increase in the per capita income in constant prices between 1951-52 and 1955-56 may be said to have been more than 13 per cent

Comparing these figures of per capita incomes for 1951-52 and 1955-56 with the corresponding estimates for different States, it is clear that Delhi enjoyed in both these years the highest per capita income among the States. Compared to Delhi's Rs 611 in 1951-52, the all-India level of per capita income was only Rs 274, among the States, the corresponding figures were Rs 327 for Punjab, Rs 321 for Assam and Rs 287 for West Bengal In 1955-56, while Delhi's per capita income had risen to Rs 666, the all-India level had decreased to Rs 261, Punjab showed a decrease to Rs 316, Assam to Rs 281 and West Bengal to 262 Thus, in the course of this period, Delhi improved its long lead over the States still further.

It is further notable that the increase in net income was all round in the sense that all the different sectors of the economy showed the increasing trend This is clearly revealed by the distribution of both workers and income according to industry of origin

Arranging the different avenues of employment or sources of income, it will be seen that they are ordered identically in both the years, excepting for a small change indicating that agriculture and allied activities had conceded their fourth place in the order of 1951-52 to construction in 1955-56 The principal

TABLE 28

State income of Delhi by industrial origin

	1951-52				1955-56			
	Persons		Income		Persons		Income	
	No in hundreds	%	Millions of rupees	%	No in hundreds	%	Millions of rupees	%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Agriculture and allied activities	647	10 2	49 9	4 7	697	8 5	50 7	3·5
Mining and industry	1,180	18 6	189 4	17 8	1,390	17 0	238 2	16 3
Construction	595	9·4	44 4	4 2	797	9 8	67·8	4 6
Utilities	119	1 9	11 1	1 0	155	1 9	17 2	1 2
Commerce and finance	1,332	21 0	231·1	21 7	1,896	23 2	372 1	25 5
Transport and communications	391	6 1	71 2	6 7	588	7 2	111 5	7·6
Professions and liberal arts	327	5 1	74 0	6 9	440	5 4	108 2	7·2
Public services	1,055	16 6	241 4	22 6	1,353	16 5	297 9	20·4
Personal services	499	7 8	35 9	3 4	607	7 4	47 5	3 2
Other services	209	3 3	11 6	1 1	254	3 1	14 9	1 0
House property			71 6	6 7			92 3	6 3
Unallocated taxed incomes			33 7	3 2			43 6	3 0
TOTAL	6,354	100 00	1,065 3	100 00	8,177	100 00	1,461 9	100·00

avenues of employment in Delhi are commerce and finance employing 23.2% of workers and yielding 25.5% of the income in 1955-56, mining and industry with 17% of employment and 16.3% of income, and public service with 16.5% of employment and 20.4% of income. The avenues of employment with superior levels of productivity, as indicated by a higher share in income as compared to that in employment, are public service, professions and liberal arts, transport and communications, and commerce and finance. On the other hand, the share in income is comparatively much smaller in agriculture and allied activities, construction, utilities, and personal and other services.

The period covered by the above investigation was a momentous one for the economic life of the Capital. It initiated through the First Five Year Plan a process of systematic development of the national economy. This obviously had its impact on the structure of Delhi's economy. To indicate this, we consider below how the increases in employment and income were distributed over the different categories specifying the industrial origin of income.

TABLE 29

Distribution of aggregate change in employment and income between 1951 and 1956

	Employment		Income	
	Persons (—00)	%	Amt (Rs Mil.)	%
Agriculture & allied activities	50	2.7	0.8	0.2
Mining and industry	210	11.5	48.8	12.3
Construction	202	11.1	23.4	5.9
Utilities	36	2.0	6.1	1.5
Commerce and finance	564	31.0	141.0	35.7
Transport & Communications	197	10.8	40.3	10.2
Professions and liberal arts	113	6.2	34.2	8.6
Public service	298	16.3	56.5	14.2
Personal services	108	5.9	11.6	2.9
Other services	45	2.5	3.3	0.8
House Property	..		20.7	5.2
Unallocated taxed incomes	..		9.9	2.5
	1,823	100.00	396.6	100.00

Both in absorption of man-power and generation of income, commerce and finance played a leading role Next in the order of importance, public service claim 16 3% of the net addition to employment and 14 2% of the net addition to State income. Notable other contributions were claimed by mining and industry, and transport and communications If we compare income generated by individual categories, it will be seen that the 1955-56 income was higher as compared to that of 1951-52 by 61 0% in commerce and trade, by 55 0% in utilities 52 7% in construction, and 46 2% in professions and liberal arts As against this, the increase amounted to only 1 6% in agriculture and allied activities

The continuation of the rising trend of both the 'State' and per capita income since 1955-56 is confirmed by another study which was conducted by the National Council of Applied Economic Research with a view to having an appraisal of the distribution of national income by States in 1960-61 This study revealed that the 'State income' of Delhi at current prices had increased from Rs 1,462 million in 1955-56 to Rs 2,317 million in 1960-61 The corresponding increase in annual per capita income was from Rs 666 to Rs 872 The gain in real income was, however, marginal for accompanying the 31 per cent increase in nominal per capita income there was an increase of over 25 per cent in the general price level It is also notable that between these two years, there was no change in the pattern of income distribution according to industrial origin In the latter as in the former year, over 60 per cent of total income originated in public services, industries trade commerce and finance, less than 4 per cent in agriculture, and over 36 per cent in construction housing transport and miscellaneous services

According to the Estimates of State Income of Delhi published by the Bureau of Economics and Statistics, Delhi Administration, State Income of Delhi at current prices was estimated to have gone up from Rs 198 crores in 1960-61 to Rs 623 crores in 1971-72 The corresponding per capita income at current prices was Rs 759 in 1960-61 and 1501 in 1971-72

The following Table gives the information of State income by industrial origin:

TABLE 30

State income by industrial origin (at current prices)

(Rupees In Lakhs)

Item	1960-61		1965-66		1970-71		1971-72	
	Amount	Percentage	Amount	Percentage	Amount	Percentage	Amount	Percentage
Agriculture & Animal Husbandry	1,220	6.15	1,767	5.46	3,340	5.90	3,634	5.83
Forestry and Fisheries	3	0.02	5	0.01	7	0.01	9	0.02
Mining and Quarrying	16	0.08	29	0.09	65	0.11	121	0.29
Manufacturing—regd sector	1,965	9.91	3,311	10.22	5,202	9.19	5,902	9.47
Manufacturing—unregd sector	3,820	19.26	5,182	16.00	8,896	15.72	9,771	15.68
Construction	1,391	7.01	1,98[illegible]	6.14	2,766	4.88	2,914	4.68
Electricity & Water Supply	197	0.99	523	1.61	1,001	1.77	1,066	1.71
Transport and Communications	1,578	7.95	2,701	8.35	5,050	8.92	5,768	9.26
Trade, storage, hotels & restaurants	2,076	10.47	3,991	12.32	8,663	15.30	9,753	15.65
Banking & Insurance	840	4.23	1,611	4.97	2,877	5.08	3,663	5.88
Real estate & ownership of dwellings	1,524	7.68	2,281	7.05	3,411	6.02	3,528	5.66
Public administration	3,409	17.19	5,782	17.85	9,513	16.80	9,716	15.64
Other Services	1,798	9.06	3,215	9.93	5,827	10.30	6,426	10.32
TOTAL	19,837	100.00	32,385	100.00	56,617	100.00	62,304	100.00

Manfacturing, public administration and trade account for nearly three-fifths of total State income of Delhi The per capita income of Delhi is reported to be the highest as compared to other States and Union Territories of the Indian Union

In the above discussion of employment and income, attention was confined to livlihood classification of the economic activity This may be supplemented now by focusing attention of the occupation of individual workers participating in the economic activity Occupation is defined as the function, or the nature of work that a person performed in the specified sphere of branch of economic activity in which he is employed The number of occupations which can be distinguished from one another in this way is enormous, particularly for a complex urban economy The diversity of occupations has greatly increased with the growth of Delhi's population and its economy It is not necessary to list all the diverse occupations We will, in the alternative, direct attention to the distribution of workers according to a standard system of classification which has been evolved after careful and detailed consideration of the entire range of non-agricultural economic activities in the country. This national classification of occupations comprises 11 divisions, which are sub-divided into 74 groups, which in turn are further sub-divided into 331 families of occupations Basing our discussion on the 1961 census distribution of workers according to this system of classification, we will indicate the major occupation groups of the rural and urban male and female workers

According to the census, the total number of workers in the population of the Delhi territory in 1961 was 8,54,451 of which only 76,169 were females Of these 7,46,815 or more than 87 per cent, were enumerated in the urban areas of the Territory The urban working force comprised 7,00,807 males and 46,008 females The occupational classification of urban workers indicates that all the 74 groups are represented here Apart from these, we have also cultivators and agricultural labourers which may be taken to constitute two independent groups The representation of male workers varies among these 76 groups from only one worker in the group of 'miners not elsewhere classified' to as many as 77 423 workers in the group of miscellaneous clerical workers The groups which claimed more than 10,000 workers are listed below according to the order of representation.

TABLE 31

Occupational distribution of male workers in urban areas

Group	No of workers
Clerical workers—miscellaneous	77,423
Labourers, not elsewhere classified	70,055
Working proprietors, wholesale and retail trade	59,399
Salesmen, shop assistants and related workers	41,322
Tool makers, machinists, plumbers, welders, platters and related workers	35,102
Housekeepers, cooks, maids and related workers	30,045
Unskilled office workers	28,012
Drivers, road transport workers	23,645
Fire fighters policemen, guards and related workers	30,015
Administrators executive officials government	19,816
Building care-takers, cleaners and related workers	18,497
Directors, managers and working proprietors others	17,6[illegible]8
Spinners, weavers, knitters, dyers and related workers	16,582
Book-keepers and cashiers	16 277
Tailors, cutters furriers and related workers	15,993
Brick-layers, plasterers and construction workers not classified elsewhere	13,364
Carpenters, jointers, cabinet makers, coopers and related workers	12 387
Stenographers and typists	11,111
Compositors, printers, engravers, book-binders and related workers	10,710
Teachers	10,417
Electricians, and related electrical and electronics workers	10 2[illegible]8

The 21 groups specified above account for more than three fourths of the total number of workers The first five occupational groups claiming more than 5 per cent share each, account for over two fifths of the total The most insignificantly represented occupations include such groups as 'miners, quarrymen and related workers not elsewhere classified', mineral treaters, hunters and related workers, deck and engine-room ratings (ship) barge crews and boatsmen, and well drillers and related workers, each with less than ten workers

Among female workers in the urban areas, as many as 67 of these occupational groups are represented Those not represented include such groups as fishermen and related workers, well-drillers, mineral treaters, miners and quarrymen, deck officers etc., air-craft pilots etc, railway drivers, firemen etc, road transport drivers etc, all those groups which comprise essentially male occupations Among the 67 groups, the representation varies from only 1 worker each in the groups of biologists, veterinarians etc, loggers etc, and boat crews, to a maximum of 8684 in the group designated as teachers The groups accounting for more than a thousand workers are listed below

TABLE 32

Occupational distribution of female workers in urban areas

Occupation group	*No of workers*
Teachers .	8,684
Labourers, not elsewhere classified . .	6,737
House-keepers, cooks, maid and related workers .	5,366
Building care-takers, cleaners and related workers .	4,711
Nurses, pharmacists and other medical and health technicians	2,472
Clerical workers—miscellaneous	1,864
Tailors, cutters, furriers and related workers . .	1,705
Brick layers, plasterers, construction workers not eleswhere classified . . .	1,470
Cultivators	1,316
Launderers, dry cleaners and pressers .	1,262
Rest 57 groups	10,421
TOTAL .	46,008

The ten specified groups account for more than three fourths of the total workers The first four groups claim more than half the workers Compared to the male, the female workers are in a fewer number of occupations Besides teachers, nurses and clerical workers, we have here few occupations which require higher levels of education or training Domestic service, labour, particularly in construction, and surprisingly cultivation are some of the important avenues of female employment in this urban economy

Turning to the small rural sector of the Delhi Territory, we have a total of 1,07,636 workers, of which 30,161 are females Agriculture, comprising cultivators and labourers provided employment to 34 927 male and 21,436 female workers Thus, female participation in agricultural occupations in the Delhi Territory is very sizable Considering individually, agriculture accounts for 71 per cent of the female and only 45 per cent of the male workers in the rural areas of Delhi More important of the other occupational groups employing rural females are labourers not elsewhere classified, potters, kilnsmen etc, and building caretakers cleaners etc Agriculture and these three occupational groups taken together account for over 93 per cent of female workers in the rural areas The more diversified occupational pattern of the male workers of rural areas includes the following groups with more than a thousand workers each

TABLE 33

Occupational distribution of male workers in rural areas

Occupation group	*No of workers*
Cultivators	30,741
Labourers not elsewhere classified	14,213
Agricultural labour	4,186
Potters, kilnmen, glass and clay formers and related workers	3,475
Unskilled office workers	1,765
Brick layers, plasterers and construction workers not elsewhere classsified	1,745
Fire fighters, policemen, guards and related workers	1,729
Clerical workers, miscellaneous	1,618
Working proprietors, wholesale and retail trade	1,460
Farm workers	1,420
Building care-takers, cleaners and related workers	1,397
Drivers, road transport	1,168
Teachers	1,101
Rest 58 groups	11,461
TOTAL	77,475

Apart from cultivators and agricultural labourers, we have a few occupational groups claiming a substantial share in the employment of rural males These include unclassified labourers with 18 4 per cent of total workers, and potters, kilnsmen etc, with 4 5 per cent Together these four groups account for 68 per cent of the total The 13 occupational groups specified above claim more than 85 per cent of the total The groups which are not representd at all in the rural male employment are those of hunters etc, well-drillers etc, mineral treaters, air-craft pilots etc, and athletes, sportsmen etc The above data on the volume of employment related to 1961 For the subsequent period, it is not possible to have a comprehensive view of the trends in total employment However, indications of the trend are available for some specified sectors of employment from varied sources Firm data are available for the public sector About the Central Government employment within the public sector, the census of employees which was taken in 1965 indicates that there was a steady growth of employment resulting in an increase of 26 per cent in the volume of employment between 1961 and 1965 The variation of employment in the different constituents of the public sector is indicated below

TABLE 34

Variation in public sector employment 1961-72

As on 31st March	Central Government	Delhi Admn	Local bodies	Quasi Govt establishments	Total
1961 . .	1,44,132	25,814	31,008	23,539	2,24,493
1967 . .	2,00,418	40,884	83,667	37,925	3,62,894
1968 . .	2,02,578	43,010	87,201	40,007	3,72,796
1969 .	2,04,579	44,241	90,338	42,195	3,81,353
1970 .	2,07,595	47,106	93,092	52,610	4,00,403
1971 . . .	2,10,561	52,717	89,876	56,187	4,09,341
1972 .	2,27,441	53,883	82,192	62,481	4,25,997

There was an increase of 81 per cent in the total public sector employment between 1961 and 1972 Within the public sector, the rate of increase was as high as 109 per cent for the Delhi Administration, while at the lowest, it amounted to 58 per cent for the Central Government Of the total increase of 2,01,504 employees, the Central Government accounted for 83,309, Delhi Administration for 28,069, the local bodies for 51,184, and the quasi-government establishments for 38,942 new employees In the private sector employment increased by 40 per cent as it rose from 1,08,091 in 1961 to 1,55,514 in 1972

Concurrently with expansion in the volume of employment, there was an increase also in the number of persons seeking jobs in Delhi This is clearly evident in the statistics relating to the working of the expanding service of employment exchanges The number of employment exchanges has increased from only one in 1956 to 17 in 1968 The expansion of unemployed persons seeking jobs according to the registers of these exchanges has been as follows

TABLE 35

Persons on the live registers of employment exchanges

Year	No of Emp Exs.	Male	Female	Total	Of which Matric+
1956 . . .	1	12,422	2,805	45,227	21,040
1961 .	7	55,829	8,733	64,562	33,705
1966 . .	15	61,786	15,619	77,405	43,929
1967 . .	15	59,691	17,421	77,112	46 728
1968 . .	17	94,176	21,928	116,111	69,649
1969 . .	17	98,944	25,884	124,828	71,313

The general trend indicated by these figures is one of pronounced increase in the volume of active job seekers It is possible that much of this increase is attributable to the expansion of the employment service itself Between 1961 and 1969 the number of job seekers registered with the employment exchanges had nearly doubled The pace of increase has been comparatively more rapid for females among them, females record

an increase of 196 per cent as compared to an increase of 77 per cent for the males on the register of employment exchanges The female proportion of the job seekers had thus increased from 13 5 per cent in 1961 to 20 7 in 1969 The component of educated unemployment too had increased at a faster rate Those with matriculation or a higher level of education numbered 33,705 among persons on the live registers in 1961 but 71,313 in 1969 indicating an increase of 112 per cent in the course of this eight year period, the educated accounted for 52% of the job seekers in 1961 and for 58% in 1969 What is notable about the working of these exchanges is that their success in placing the job seekers in jobs remained partial In 1961, while there were 64,562 applicants on their registers, the number of applicants who could be provided jobs was only 8,056 The latter figure rose to 29 766 in 1966, and 33,447 in 1967 but once again declined to 28,055 in 1968 and 13,993 in 1969

The number of applicants on the live register of employment exchanges at the end of 1970 and 1971 was 1 38,721 and 1 39 220 which rose to 1 44,300 in March, 1972 The occupational break up of applicants registered with the employment exchanges as on 30th June, 1972 is given in the following Table

TABLE 36

Occupational break up of applicants on the live register of employment exchanges as on 30-6-1972

Occupational Division	No of applicants
Professional, technical & related workers	19,509
Administrative, executive & managerial workers	69
Clerical and related workers	9,537
Sales workers	46
Farmers etc	1,941
Miners, quarrymen etc	1
Workers in transport & communications	2,244
Craftsmen & production process workers	7 120
Service, sport & recreation workers	1,743
Unskilled workers	1 ,729
Freshers	88,736
TOTAL	1,15,675

Planning And Community Development

Planning for the development of Delhi began simultaneously with that of the country as a whole Similarly, simultaneously was the launching of the Community Development Programme In fact, Alipur Development Block which has been a show-piece for visitors to Delhi was one of the first development blocks to be taken up under the Community Development Programme in October 1952 Since then, Community Development and Extension Service has spread to cover the entire rural zone of the Territory For the rural area planning and community development have been synonymous and our reference to planning includes all programmes of community development as well

The processes of planning for the Territory have obviously been influenced by the unique position it occupies in the country The two unique features of the Territory which is comparable more with a district than a State, are the location of the national capital and the level of urbanization In fact the entire Territory is for the purposes of local administration, under the jurisdiction of local bodies which are essentially urban in character We have here the Delhi Cantonment Board the New Delhi Municipality and the Delhi Municipal Corporation which cover all rural areas of the Territory The physical planning, which is the most important aspect of comprehensive urban planning is guided by the Delhi Master Plan which was prepared between 1957 and 1960 and which came into force in 1962 This plan embodies the guide-lines for most of the programmes that are taken up under the Five Year Plans

The above developments led in the course of the planning period also to changes in the planning set-up in Delhi The Delhi State (Part C) remained in charge of planning upto the implementation of the scheme of reorganization of States in 1956 Thereafter, the responsibility rested with the Delhi administration which works under the over-all control of the Union Ministry of Home Affairs Since the beginning of the Third Plan the responsibility has been shared by three plan implementing agencies namely, the Delhi Administration, the New Delhi Municipal Committee and the Municipal Corporation of Delhi together with its undertakings Thus, there are today in fact six separate authorities participating in the process of plan preparation and implementation

Since the beginning of planning, we have had three Five Year Plans followed by three annual plans. The Fourth Plan, was for the period of five years from 1969-70 to 1973-74. The size of the planning effort has varied in terms of financial outlays and actual expenditure incurred over this period as follows :

TABLE 37

Plan outlays and expenditure in million rupees

	Outlay	Expenditure
First Plan (1951-56).	63	47
Second Plan (1955-61)	170	154
Third Plan (1961-66) .	990	931
Three Annual Plans (1966-67, 1967-68 and 1968-69)	752	677
Fourth Plan (1969-74)	4,005	..

In terms of the utilization of the plan provision of financial outlays, the performance of planning in Delhi has been quite satisfactory Over the period of 18 years taken as a whole, Rs 1 809 million or over 91 per cent of the outlays were utilized The gap between outlay and expenditure was sizable only in the First Plan

Sectoral distribution of the total plan expenditure incurred so far is given below in order to indicate the relative importance that different spheres of economy have enjoyed in the planning process

TABLE 38

Sectoral distribution of plan expenditure of 1951—69

	Amount in million rupees	Per cent
Agriculture and Allied Programmes	4,254	2.4
Flood Control and Power	60,633	33.5
Industries	4,720	2.6
Roads and Road Transport	15,602	8.6
Education (general and technical)	32,498	18.0
Health and water supply	22,573	12.5
Housing	31,782	17.5
Other sectors (backward class & social welfare, labour welfare etc.)	8,829	4.9
TOTAL	1,80,891	100.00

The first priority evidently has gone to power and flood control. The flood control part is relatively insignificant. This work was taken up after 1958 on the recommendations of the K.C. Reddy Committee that was set up immediately following the heavy rains of July 20 and 21 of that year which resulted in flooding of large areas in the capital. The total expenditure on this sub-head amounted during 1951-69 to only Rs. 54.3 million. In the second place of the order of importance, we have education claiming 18 per cent of the Plan expenditure, followed by housing and health with a share of 17.5 and 12.5 per cent respectively.

The Plan performances in physical terms are as follows:

Agricultural Production: Despite a decrease of over 10 thousand hectares in the area under cultivation, due to urbanization, it has been possible to achieve a compound growth rate of 8 per cent per annum in the agricultural sector in the period 1951-52 to 1967-68. The yield of wheat per hectare increased from 628 kg. in 1951-52 to 1,932 kg. in 1970-71.

Industries The number of industrial units increased from over six thousand in 1950-51 to 23,496 in 1968, and the registered factories among them had increased from 492 to 1,504 The compound rate of growth of production in the registered factories has been 6 per cent per annum The value added by manufacture in these factories was Rs 201 million in 1960 and Rs 304 million in 1965

Power The total installed capacity in 1951-52 was 35 MW, which has increased to 226 MW. Including the import of 80 MW from the Bhakra Nangal System, available capacity in 1970-71 amounted to 306 MW

Road and Road Transport Between 1961 and 1968, a road length of 352 kilometers was newly constructed or improved A number of road over-bridges were constructed to remove severe bottlenecks at level crossings including those at Patel Road Sarai Rohilla, Mehrauli Road and Link Road near Defence Colony Additionally sub-ways or over-bridges were provided at places subject to heavy traffic like Kashmire Gate, Old Delhi Railway Station, Lahori Gate, Qutub Road at Sadar Bazar, Bahadur Shah Zafar Marg and Subhash Marg at Red Fort To meet the ever-increasing volume of traffic road transport buses were increased from 218 in 1951 to 1,206 in 1968 but the average number of passengers carried per day had at the same time increased from 79 000 to over 8,00,000

General Education . There has been consideration expansion in the educational facilities 56 per cent of children in 6-11 years age group now attend schools The corresponding proportions for 11-14 and 14-17 years age groups are 81 2 and 93 per cent respectively The number of primary schools increased between 1951 and 1971 from 530 to 1,344, of middle schools from 74 to 463, and of High, or Higher Secondary, Schools, from 69 to 474 Additionally the Delhi Administration has started 11 degree colleges

Health · Progress in this field has been moderate However, the number of beds per thousand population has increased over the plan period as a whole from 1 4 to 2 4 The shortage today is of the order of 6 000 beds

Water Supply The capacity of the water supply system increased from 66 million gallon per day at the end of the First Plan to 143 million in 1967-68 The per capita daily consumption of filtered water increased from 29.40 gallons in 1951-52 to

44 70 gallons in 1968-69 This, however, is still short of the standard recommended by the Naskar Committee by as much as about 30 gallons

Housing The progress achieved in the field of housing has been unsatisfactory in the face of rapid population increase and housing shortage has grown progressively more acute Under the schemes included in the Plans only 880 dwelling units were constructed in the First, 4,123 in the Second and 8,924 in the Third Plan The Third Plan additionally developed 21,350 camping sites This programme included houses built by government or other public agencies or local bodies for their own employees, houses built for the rehabilitation of slum dwellers and squatters and also houses built by the private sector and cooperative societies

The Fourth Plan is much more ambitious Its total outlays amount to Rs 4,005 million as against Rs 1,975 million representing aggregate outlays of the first three Plans and the succeeding three annual Plan Sectoral distribution of this impressive outlay is follows

TABLE 39

Sectoral distribution of Fourth Plan outlay

Sector	Amount (Rs million)	Per cent
Agriculture and allied programmes	51 4	1 3
Cooperation and community Development . .	17 0	0 4
Irrigation and power .	957 8	23 9
Industries (village and small scale) . .	57 7	1 4
Transport and communications . .	453 6	11 3
Social Services	2,444 8	61 1
Miscellaneous . .	23 0	0 6
TOTAL .	4,005 3	100 0

Compared to the corresponding distribution of the aggregate expenditure of the first eighteen years of planning, the Fourth Plan proposes to devote greater proportions of its total outlays on social services and transport, and smaller proportions on agriculture, power and industries The aggregate outlay on social services is distributed between the different types of social services as follows

TABLE 40

Distribution of social services outlay of the Fourth Plan

Service	Amount (Rs million)	Per cent
General education	672.0	27.5
Technical education	55.0	2.2
Cultural programmes	5.0	0.2
Health	339.2	13.9
Water supply and sewage	591.0	24.2
Housing	677.2	27.7
Urban development	60.0	2.5
Welfare of backward classes	8.0	0.3
Social welfare	16.7	0.7
Craftsmen training and labour welfare	20.5	0.8
Public cooperation	0.2	.
TOTAL	2,444.8	100.0

The bulk of the outlays on social services go to education health, water supply and housing The proportion claimed by education in the total Plan outlays is about the same as its share in the total Plan expenditure of the last eighteen years Combined proportion of health and water supply is much greater but that of housing is somewhat smaller On the whole, the Fourth Plan is oriented more toward social services than toward economic development *per se*

The allocation of Plan outlays as between different Plan implementing agencies is as follows

TABLE 41

Share of different agencies in Fourth Plan outlays

Agency	Outlay (Rs Million)	Percent
Delhi Administration	1,379.3	34.1
Delhi Development Authority	111.5	2.8
New Delhi Municipal Committee	108.5	2.7
Municipal Corporation of Delhi	841.0	21.0
Water Supply & sewage disposal undertaking	575.0	14.4
Delhi Transport undertaking*	185.0	4.6
Delhi Electricity Supply undertaking	805.0	20.1
TOTAL	4,005.3	100.0

The Delhi Municipal Corporation together with its undertakings claims over 60 per cent of the outlays The Delhi Development Authority an autonomous organisation responsible to the Delhi Administration looks after the physical development part of the Master Plan to it goes the part of the outlays on housing New Delhi's total outlays are made up of several programmes to be executed within its jurisdiction relating to power road development general education health, water supply housing and urban development The last named urban development is a new item it comprises such programmes as street lighting provision of amenities in certain areas called 'regularised unauthorised colonies' and also commercial projects of constructing markets shop-cum-offices, *shop-cum-residential* flats shopping centres etc

Finally we may indicate what the Plan is attempting in selected fields by comparing the 1967-68 position with the expected situation at the end of the Plan in 1973-74

*Delhi Transport Corporation

TABLE 42

Physical programmes of the Fourth Plan

Agriculture		1967-68	1973-74
1		2	3
Area under forests	('000 acres)	7·73	8 1
Area under orchards	('000 acres)	0 73	0 40
New cropped area	('000 acres)	190 00	190 00
Gross cropped area	('000 acres)	289 70	378 00
Irrigated area-net	('000 acres)	110·21	147·63
Irrigated area-gross	('000 acres)	172·70	252·00
Production of food crops . . .	('000 tonnes)	123·00	197 00
Production of commercial crops . .	('000 tonnes)	296 20	390·40
Number of regulated markets . .		3	80
Storage capacity for foodgrains, fertilizers etc (tonnes)		10,500	13,00
Veterinary hospitals and dispensaries .	(No)	35	40
Power			
Total capacity	(MW)	318	374
Electricity generation . .	(Million Kmh)	945 11	2,297 0
Roads Delhi Administration			
Surfaced road in progress . .	(Kws)	27·0	39 0
Surfaced road completed . .	,,	1·0	11 0
Road Transort			
Fleet of buses as on March 31 .	(No)	1,206	2,384
Average number of vehicles on road .	(No.)	848	1,895
Vehicle utilisation	(per cent)	70	80

TABLE 42—*Contd.*

1		2	3
General Education			
Enrolment Total-Class I-V	(Lakhs)	4·45	6·55
Enrolment Total Class I-V girls .	(Lakhs)	1·97	2·91
Enrolment Total-Classes VI-VIII	(Lakhs)	2·01	2·85
Enrolment Total-Classes VI-VIII girls	(Lakhs)	0·77	0·13
Enrolment Total-Classes IX-XI	(Lakhs)	1·17	1·17
Enrolment Total-Classes IX-XI girls	(Lakhs)	0·42	0·62
Health			
Additional number of Govt Hospitals			14
Additional number of Govt dispensaries			29
Additional number of beds			5,256
Water supply			
Water supply quantity	(MGD)	143·0	107·0
Urban water supply -population covered	(Millions)	3·30	4·70
Rural water supply No of villages covered		25	234
Housing			
Total number of tenements constructed under different schemes		1,115	7,748

If the implied targets are fulfilled, Delhi will witness an impressive expansion of electricity generation, of road transport service of primary, middle and higher secondary education, of hospital services and of the supply of filtered water Under the Delhi Master Plan, the face of the metropolis has of late been visibly changing and planning has raised high expectations of further improvements.

CHAPTER X

GENERAL ADMINISTRATION

Administration Of Delhi From 1803-1912

Delhi As An Administrative Unit, 1803-1912

In 1803, the Marathas were defeated by Lord Lake in the battle of Patparganj on the outskirts of Delhi, and the Mughal Emperor, Shah Alam, came under British protection When the Marathas had the Emperor under their control, they had allowed him certain *Jagirs* for his maintenance These were continued by Lord Wellesley and were known as "the Assigned Tract", and later as "the Delhi Territory" This tract was much greater in extent than the present Union Territory of Delhi, it comprised roughly of the districts of Hissar, Rohtak, Gurgaon and Karnal, and the old Delhi District [1]

Shah Alam was allowed civil and criminal jurisdiction within the precincts of the palace, for the rest, the administration was in the hands of an officer of the East India Company, the Resident and Chief Commissioner of Delhi The latter was charged, as the designation of the post shows with both political and administrative duties and acted under the direction and control of the Governor General in Council By Section 4 of Bengal Regulation VIII of 1805, the 'Assigned Tract' was specifically excluded from the purview of the General Regulations in force in the old Presidency areas, and was administered in the name of the Mughal Emperor according to the Muhammadan Law[2] This arrangement continued up to 1832 when the nominal but anomalous authority of the Mughal Emperor was put to an end and the administration of the Delhi Territory was placed, both in law and in fact, in the hands of the officers of the East India Company By Regulation V of 1832 the office of the Resident and Chief Commissioner of Delhi was abolished and the administration of revenue, police, and civil and criminal justice in the Territory was vested in the Board of Revenue and the High (*Sadr*) Court at Agra, the *Sadr Diwani Adalat* and the *Sadr Nizamat Adalat* at Allahabad The Commissioner who was in immediate charge of the Territory and

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[1] *Delhi District Gazetteer* (1912), pp 39-41 Also, *Aitchison Treaties* Vol I (1929), pp. 355-56

[2] *Delhi District Gazetteer* (1951), pp. 39-41 No written engagement of any sort was given to Shah Alam and the constitutional status of the Emperor was one of doubt-Cambridge History of India, Vol. V (India Edition) p. 605.

all the officers working under him were required to act under the orders of the *Sadr* Courts and the Revenue Board. The Governor General in Council was empowered to introduce into the Territory the whole or any part of the Regulations in force in the Bengal Presidency. Delhi was a part of the upper provinces of the Bengal Presidency, which came to constitute "the North-West Provinces" under a Lieutenant Governor in 1835 During the rebellion of 1857 the administration of Delhi passed into the hands of the army With the return of peace and the re-establishment of civil government, there was re-adjustment of provincial boundaries The Delhi Territory was transferred from the North-West Provinces to the Punjab under Act XXXVIII of 1858 With this accession of territory, the Punjab, which was hitherto administered by a Chief Commissioner, became a Lieutenant-Governor's Province Delhi was one of the five divisions of the Punjab, comprising the districts of Hissar, Rohtak, Gurgaon, Karnal, Ambala, Simla and Delhi In 1912, when it was decided to make Delhi the capital of India, the city of Delhi and its immediate environs were separated from the Punjab and constituted to form a separate and independent province under a Chief Commissioner

Delhi District

As regards the history of the old Delhi district as an administrative unit, the 'Assigned Tract' or the Delhi territory was first divided regularly into districts in 1819 The Delhi District as then constituted included the Delhi tahsil, the northern portion of the Ballabgarh tahsil and a small portion of the Rohtak District, and was divided into two parganas, the "northern" and the "southern" There were territorial accessions and adjustments from time to time The greater part of the Ballabgarh tahsil was not British in 1818, but was acquired later and added on to the District The Larsauli pargana of the Panipat district was transferred to the Delhi district in 1861 and came to form the Sonepat Tahsil 160 villages, with an area about 500 sq. kms, were acquired from the districts of Meerut and Bulandshahr sometime between 1848 and 1853, and they came to constitute the Eastern Pargana of the Delhi district These villages, however, remained with the North-West Provinces when the Delhi territory was transferred to the Punjab While the Delhi tahsil had an earlier exsitence, the division of the Delhi district into the Delhi, Ballabgarh and Sonepat Tahsils dates from 1862 In 1912, when the Delhi Province was carved out of the Delhi district, the latter had 773 villages distributed as : Delhi tahsil-267, Sonepat tahsil-241, and Ballabgarh tahsil-265.

Administrative Set-Up

As a part of the Punjab, the Delhi division was in the charge of a Commissioner, who had, in addition to his general administrative duties, control over the protected States of Sirmur, Kalsia, Dujana, Pataudi and Loharu. The Delhi district was under a Deputy Commissioner, as the chief district officer was designated in the non-Regulation Provinces The Deputy Commissioner was assisted by 8 Assistant or Extra-Assistant Commissioner, and each of the tahsil was under a Tahsildar and Naib Tahsildar. These officers performed both revenue and judicial duties Kanungos and Patwaris constituted the subordinate revenue staff, and Zaildars and Lambardars (chiefs and headmen) rendered general assistance in revenue matters. There were magistrates, stipendiary and honorary, to assist in the administration of criminal justice The Deputy Commissioner was the Registrar for the whole district and supervised the work of Sub-Registrars located at four different towns He was the *ex-officio* president of both the District Board and the Delhi Municipality There were other district officers too The civil judiciary was under a District Judge, who was subject to the supervisory control of the Divisional and Sessions Judge of the Delhi Civil Division The public works of the district were under a Sub-Divisional Officer, who worked under the Executive Engineer in charge of the Delhi provincial division of the Public Works Department. The district police was under a Superintendent, and the Delhi District formed part of the eastern range under the Deputy Inspector General of Police with headquarters at Ambala There was also the Civil Surgeon, who exercised control over all the official medical institutions excluding military hospitals Delhi, Sonepat, Ballabgarh and Faridabad had municipal committees to administer them, and Mehrauli and Najafgarh had Notified Area Committees There was also a District Board [1]

Delhi As A Chief Commissioner's Province, 1912-1951

Establishment Of Delhi Province

On 12 December, 1911, at the Durbar held in Delhi, King George V announced the transfer of the seat of the Government

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[1] The account in this section is based on the following, *Gazetteer of the Delhi District*, 1883-4 pp 22-7 and 146-59, *Punjab District Gazetteer*, Vol V A, *Delhi District* 1912 (Lahore, 1913), pp 39-43 and 173-212 *Imperial Gazetteer of India*, Provincial Series, Panjab Vol. I (Calcutta 1908) pp-97-9 and 287 9 *Bengal Regulations*, VIII of 1805 and V of 183 and India Act XXXVIII of 1858· and *Aitchison's Treaties* (1929), Vol. I, pp. 355-7.

of India from Calcutta to Delhi Right from the days of Lord Bentinck there had been continuous demand for completely dissociating the Central Government from the administration of any of the Provincial Governments The present occasion provided a fitting opportunity According to the Indian Statutory Commission, the creation of the Delhi Province was "with the sole object of providing the Government of India, with a seat free from the dominant influence of any Provincial Government "[1] But political considerations are known to have greatly influenced the decision The city of Delhi and such of the surrounding areas as could be conveniently served were detached from the Delhi District of the Punjab, and constituted into a separate province, known as the Delhi Province with effect from 1 October, 1912 It comprised the Delhi Tahsil and the Mehrauli Police Station of the Ballabgarh Tahsil Of what remained of the old Delhi District, the Sonepat Tahsil was transferred to the Rohtak District, and the Ballabagarh Tahsil minus Mehrauli to the Gurgaon District When it was first constituted the total area of the Delhi Province was 547 sq miles In 1915, the Shahdara Pargana and a few more villages were transferred to it from the Ghaziabad Tahsil in the Meerut District of the United Provinces This was necessitated "by considerations of health, expansion and other interests attaching to the surrounding areas of the new capital[2] it was also" considered desirable and convenient to vest the control of the river channel in a single authority "[3] Three more villages were transferred to it from the Meerut District in 1925-26[4] For the rest, there were only slight changes in the boundary of the province due to river action from time to time According to 1971 census the present area is 1485 sq kms

Place Of Delhi Under The British Indian Constitutional System

The separation of Delhi from the Punjab had an adverse effect on its constitutional position both at the beginning and in later years In 1912, when the province was formed, it lost the benefits derived from its representation on the Punjab Legislative Council—two out of fourteen non-official seats—and no local legislature was set up either under the Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms of 1919 or under the constitutional changes of 1935 Indeed

[1] *Report of the Indian Statutory Commission*, Vol I, p 328

[2] *Census of India*, 1921, Vol XV, Part I, p 2

[3] Speech of the Hon'ble Sir Ali Imam, 2 March 1915 Proceedings of the Imperial Legislative Council, Vol L I, p. 340,

[4] *Delhi Admn Report*, 1928-29, p 6

at that time the Government of India was opposed to devolution of authority to the Delhi Administration in any form it did not favour the setting up of a local legislature, since the existing system of extending the laws of the neighbouring provinces prevented diversity in legislation when there was no natural diversity of condition, it doubted the wisdom of financial devolution, since the province could not meet its needs and had to depend on Central grants, and it opposed administrative devolution, because the development and efficient administration of the seat of Imperial Government were the intimate concern of that Government Under the Government of India Act, 1935, however, Delhi figured as a "transferred" subject to be placed under the control of one popular minister at the Centre If the federal part of the scheme had come into force, there was a possibility of some constitutional advance in the province Thus, except for a few changes in the representation of the province in the Central Legislature, its position remained the same between 1912 and 1947 It was administered by the Chief Commissioner as an agent of the Government of India The whole of its administration and finance was a Central charge and there were no limits to the power and control vested in the Governor-General in Council Its annual estimates of revenue and expenditure formed part of the budget of the Central Government, and its legislative needs were met by Central legislation [1] After Independence this arrangement continued till 1951 when the administration was completely reorganised

Executive Government And Administration

The Chief Commissioner, who was the executive and administrative head of the Delhi Administration acted under the control of the Government of India in the Home Department, and was vested with the powers of a Local Government [2] While Delhi Administration was under the over-all supervision of the Home Department of the Government of India on matters specifically concerning the other departments references were made direct to them and orders obtained Under the proviso to Section 3 of the Delhi Laws Act of 1912, the Governor-General in Council was given "the authority to reserve to himself or to delegate to another authority such powers or duties of the Local Government and existing enactments as he may specify" [3] Accordingly, the powers of the Chief Commissioner were limited by notifications issued

[1] *The Indian Statutory Commission*, Vol I, p 175

[2] *The Government of India* Act, 1919, 58 58 and 134(4)

[3] *The Indian Statutory Commission*, Vol V, P 356

from time to time In the case of certain measures such as the Administrator General's Act, 1913, the powers of the Local Government in respect of Delhi were vested in the Punjab Government, and in the case of certain other measures such as the Indian Extradition Act, 1903, Chapter II, the Indian Press Act of 1910 and the Local Authorities Loans Act of 1879, the powers were rendered by the Governor General in Council to himself [1]

At the time the Indian Statutory Commission reported, the ministerial and lower subordinate establishments were borne on local cadres and were recruited by the Chief Commissioner There were however, no local cadres for other services Generally speaking, all posts were borne on the Punjab cadres but the posts Chief Commissioner Deputy Commissioner, Civil Surgeon, and some others were borne on the Imperial establishment Irrigation remained with the irrigation branch of the Public Works Department of the Punjab, and technical assistance of other officers of the Punjab Government was also availed of [2] However, the Chief Commissioner discharged the functions of the Inspector-General of Police in the matter of control of the police personnel in Delhi, and the province was a separate police district The High Court at Lahore exercised jurisdiction over the Delhi courts The judicial officers presiding over the courts established in the province were obtained from the Punjab [3] The financial adjustments necessitated by this dependence on the Punjab were many and complicated [4]

The principal officers of the Delhi Administration in 1939-40 were the Chief Commissioner, the Deputy Commissioner, the Senior Superintendent of Police, the Superintending Engineer, the Chief Medical Officer and Civil Surgeon, the Superintendent of Education and the Chief Health Officer Delhi [5]

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1. *Notes on the administration of Delhi Province*, (1926), p. 21

2. For instance, the Department of Industries of Delhi was under the technical control of the Director of Industries Punjab. It was only in 1932 that a Superintendent of industries acting under the Deputy Commissioner was appointed and the link with the Punjab severed. Again the Inspector of Boilors in the Punjab looked after Delhi also, and the Delhi State had its own separate officer only in 1935 Note prepared for *Handbook of Archival Depositories*

3. *The Indian Statutory Commission* Vol IV, p 356.

4. *Notes on the administration of Delhi Province* (1926) p. 44.

5. *Delhi Administration Report for* 1939-40, p. I.

Legislative Arrangements And Policy

With the passing of the province under the direct administration of the Government of India in 1912, the Central Legislature became also the Local Legislature for Delhi For so small an area as Delhi, whose life was indistinguishable from that of the surrounding country, the best mode of legislation was considered to be extension of the laws of the neighbouring provinces Section 7 of the Delhi Laws Act (No. XIII) of 1912, provided that the Governor-General in Council might extend to the Delhi province or any part thereof, any enactment which was in force at the time in any part of British India with such restrictions and modifications as he thought fit This provision saved unnecessary resort to legislation in cases where suitable laws were already in existence,[1] and by this simple method uniformity was maintained between the laws of Delhi and those of the Punjab, of which Delhi was formerly a part[2] Thus, the province got its laws from two sources: the Indian Legislature and the Governor-General in Council in his executive capacity

Under the Delhi Laws Act of 1912, the existing laws derived from the Punjab "were maintained in their entirety except insofar as it was necessary to provide their administration by the new authorities"[3] When Shahdara and other villages were taken over from the United Provinces in 1915, the laws in force in Delhi at the time were extended to them except in respect of land laws The law of the United Provinces in force in the area was retained in respect of the latter The Indian Legislature passed some important laws specifically for Delhi, namely the Delhi University Act of 1922, the Delhi Joint Water Board Act of 1926, and the Delhi Joint Water Board (Amendment) Act of 1938 But the Governor-General in Council in his executive capacity was the main source of local legislation. Mostly the laws of the Punjab were adopted and extended to the province For instance, under the Delhi Code of 1939, of the 54 laws extended to it, 48 were those of the Punjab, 3 of the United Provinces, 2 of Bombay and 1 of Bengal

[1] Speech by the Hon'ble Minister Syed Ali Imam in moving the *Delhi Laws Bill*, 18th September, 1912, *Proceedings of the Imperial Legislative Council* Vol LI, pp. 57-58.

[2] *The Indian Statutory Commission*, Vol I p. 328

[3] *Ibid.*, Vol p. 357

Representation Of Delhi On The Indian Legislature

Since the Indian Legislature was also the Local Legislature for Delhi, the representation of the province on that body was of paramount importance On the creation of the province the Chief Commissioner for Delhi was invariably appointed a member of the Imperial Legislative Council, but no non-official representative was added Under the constitutional reform of 1919, one elective seat open to all communities, was allotted to Delhi in the lower house, namely the Legislative Assembly Delhi had no seat in the Council of State, but the Chief Commissioner was in practice nominated to it[1] Franchise was highly restricted, the electoral qualifications in respect of the lower house being generally the same as those in the Punjab In 1926 there were only 5,551 electors on poll[2] Although Delhi had on population basis a larger representation than any other province, it was considered quite inadequate since "the Central Legislature was also the local Legislature for Delhi and also the body which had to provide money for Delhi's needs[3] The Indian Statutory Commission recommended two elective seats for the province, one in the upper house and one in the lower[4] Under the Government of India Act 1935, Delhi was allotted two seats, one general and one Muslim in the Federal Assembly, and one general seat in the Council of State The provisions in this respect did not, however, take effect

The Montague-Chelmsford Report recommended the setting up of an advisory council attached to the Chief Commissioner This recommendation was not implemented, since the Government felt that Delhi's normal interests were municipal, and the municipal bodies and the District Board which were in existence provided adequate scope for the expression of the wishes of the People[5]

Financial Arrangements

The position at the time the Statutory Commission made its enquiry was briefly as follows No financial settlement had been made in respect of the province, and its budget, like those of all

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[1] *The Indian Statutory Commission*, Vol I p. 328

[2] *Ibid*, Vol V p 358

[3] *Recommendations of the Chief Commissioner of Delhi*, 1st March 1929, *the Indian Statutory Commission*, Vol XV, p. 534.

[4] *The Indian Statutory Commission*, Vol II, p 144 and 150

[5] *The Indian Statutory Commission*, Vol I p 367

other minor administrations except Coorg, was a part of the budget of the Central Government Provision for standing charges, fluctuating charges and fresh expenditure was made in the same manner as for the departments of the Government of India The Chief Commissioner's powers of expenditure were those of a minor Local Government[1] To ensure elasticity in respect of reappropriations most of the major heads of expenditure were included under one grant-head, namely, the Delhi Area Grant "Within this grant the Chief Commissioner has practically complete power of reappropriation of voted and non-voted appropriations separately, except in the matter of reappropriations to and from Pay of Officers in which cases his powers are restricted"[2] The following heads of expenditure were included in the general Indian demands, taxes on income, currency, civil works, territorial and political pensions, and stationery and printing The allotments to the Delhi Administration under these demands were intimated to the Chief Commissioner at the beginning of every year Extra funds in respect of them could only be obtained through the Government of India, the Chief Commissioner's power of reappropriation being confined only to the amount of the allotment under each major head[3] The construction of the new capital was not a provincial concern, it was under the charge of the new capital committee[4]

On the question of the self-sufficiency of the provincial revenues to meet provincial expenditure, the Government of India felt that the subject required careful scrutiny since the accounts of the local administration were very much mixed up with those of the Centre They wrote, "It seems probable, that the presence of the headquarters of the Imperial Government involves a scale of the expenditure for which provincial revenues alone would be inadequate, and that these revenues are not sufficiently elastic to permit of the development which is desirable"[5]

Delhi As A Self-Governing Part C State, 1952-56

Establishment Of Delhi Province

Delhi, like the other old Chief Commissioners' Provinces, was included among Part C States under the Constitution There was

[1] *Ibid*, Vol I, p. 328 and Vol V, p. 356-358

[2] *Notes on the Administration of the Delhi Province* (1926), p 74-75

[3] *Notes on the Administration of Delhi Province* (1926), p 74-75

[4] *The Indian Statutory Commission*, Vol V, p 357

[5] *Ibid.*, p 358.

no division of legislative authority as in the case of Part A and B States The administration of Part C States was vested in the Union Government and the authority of Parliament was wholly uncircumscribed Parliament was, however, free to provide these States with a democratic set-up or make such other arrangements as it thought fit Under the Government of Part C States Act pass on 6 September 1951, the Delhi State was provided with a legislature and a popular ministry but in view of Delhi being the capital of India, the powers delegated had to be circumscribed What it got was a form of dyarchical government seeking "to reconcile Central Control over the federal capital with autonomy at State level "[1]

The Legislative Assembly Of Delhi

The Assembly had 48 seats, of which 6 were reserved for the Scheduled Castes Its life was five years, unless dissolved earlier In the matter of franchise qualifications of voters and members, legislative privileges etc the rules were similar to those in respect of the Legislatures of Part A States[2] For the purposes of election, the State was divided into 36 single member constituencies and 6 double member constituencies with reservation in each of them for a member of the Scheduled Castes[3] Voting was distributive, the voters having as many votes as there were candidates to be elected[4]

Under the Act of 1951, the Legislatures of Part C States were empowered to enact laws in respect of any matter enumerated in the State list or the Concurrent list of the Constitution, just as in Part A and B States The sources of revenue, enumerated in the lists, were the same for both The administration of these States was however, vested by the Constitution in the Parliament Its authority was preserved by providing that in case of repugnancy the law made by Parliament should prevail over that of the State Legislature This restriction was not, however, expected to curtail unduly the powers of these States, because it did not apply to Acts of Parliament passed before 1 April, 1952 and to law of the other States of India extended to Delhi under the Delhi Laws Act of 1912 or the Part C States (Laws) Act, 1950 Further

[1] Report of the States Reorganisation Committee (1955) para. 582.

[2] *The Government of Part C States* Act, 1951 s. s 3, 5, 6, 17, 19 and the Third *Schedule*

[3] *Delhi Administration Report* 1951-52 (Mss. pp. 326-7).

[4] *Ibid*

having delegated power to the State Legislature, Parliament was not expected to interfere in purely local matters normally The position allotted to Delhi was the same as that of the other Part C States, except that, in view of its being the capital of India, the following subjects and connected matters were excluded from the purview of its Legislative Assembly

(a) Public order.

(b) Police including railway police.

(c) The constitution and powers of municipal corporation and other local authorities, of improvement trusts and of water supply, drainage, electricity, transport and other public utility authorities in Delhi or New Delhi.

(d) Lands and buildings vested in or in the possession of the Union which were situated in Delhi or New Delhi

Expenditure incurred on these subjects formed part of the central budget and were voted by the Union Parliament Further while in Part 'A' States, the Governors could assent to Bills, all Bills of the Delhi Legislative Assembly had to be referred to the President for his assent. The power to promulgate ordinances was vested only in the President [1] While these limitations were important, it should be noted that the authority of the Legislative Assembly of Delhi extended over all other matters in the State list and the Concurrent list of the Constitution: administration of justice, prisons, public health, agriculture, industries, etc [2]

In addition to the Union Parliament and the Legislative Assembly of Delhi, there was another source of legislation Under Part C States (Laws) Act, 1950, the Central Government could extend to Delhi and certain other Part C States any enactment in force in a Part A State, with such restrictions and modification as were considered necessary This was just a continuance of a similar power vested in the Governor General in Council by section 7 of the Delhi Laws Act, 1912, in the earlier period

[1] *Article 230 of the Constitution*, and S 26 *of the Govt of Part C State* Act, 1951

[2] *The Government of Part C States Act*, 1951, as amended s. s. 21-22 The India Code, Vol. II. Also, D.D. Basu, *Commentary on the Constitution of India*.

The Chief Commissioner And The Council Of Ministers

The executive authority for the administration of the Delhi State was vested in the President of the Union and he exercised it through a Chief Commissioner The Chief Commissioner was for all practical purposes the head of the administration and all executive action, whether taken on the advice of his Ministers or otherwise, was *expressed to be taken in his name* Just as in Part A States, there was a Council of Ministers to aid and advise him in relation to all matters with respect to which the Legislative Assembly of Delhi had power to make law, except insofar as he was required by any law to exercise any judicial or quasi-judicial functions The Ministers were collectively responsible to the Legislative Assembly of the State The Ministry consisted of the Chief Minister, the Health Minister, the Development Minister, and two Deputy Ministers The position of the Chief Commissioner *vis-a-vis* his Ministers and the administration was somewhat weaker than in Part 'A' States The President not the Chief Commissioner, appointed the Chief Minister The other Ministers were also appointed by the President on the advice of the Chief Minister The rules of business were made by the President In case of difference of opinion between him and his Ministers, the Chief Commissioner was required to refer the matter to the President for decision and act according to his orders While the Chief Commissioner was expected to act normally on the advice of his Ministers on all matters within their purview, he was empowered to overrule them and act in his discretion on matters concerning New Delhi [1] The authority of the President was fully secured by the provision "Notwithstanding anything in the foregoing provisions of the Act, the Chief Commissioner and his Council of Ministers shall be under the General control of and comply with such particular directions if any as may from time to time be given by the President "[2] In case of failure of the constitutional machinery, the President could suspend the operation of the Act and make such other arrangements for its administration as he thought fit [3]

While a Legislature and a Council of Ministers were established and the State was self-governing, the Government of India exercised control over many vital matters All contracts were expressed to be made by the President and executed on his behalf

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1 *Article* 239 (1) *of the Constitution and Section* 36-8 *of the Government of Part C States Act*, 1951

2 *The Government of Part C States Act*, 1951, S 40

3 *Ibid* , S 41

The Chief Commissioner had to obtain the sanction of the Government of India for entering into any contract for the purchase of any property, movable or immovable, or for the construction of works, or for any other purpose whatsoever if it involved a liability of Rs 1 lakh or more Sale or lease of property for more than thirty years, sale or lease of property worth more than Rs 1 lakh and alienation of land assessed to land revenue to the value of Rs 1,000 or more had to receive its previous sanction All drafts Bills had to be referred to it before being introduced in the State Legislature and its advice awaited A prior preference to the Government of India in the Home Department was also required in the following cases. all proposals for legislation, all important cases raising question of policy or of administrative importance, important cases which affected or were likely to affect the peace and tranquillity of the State! cases which affected or were likely to affect the interests of any minority community, Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Backward classes, cases affecting the relations of the Government of India with any other State Government or the Supreme Court, proposals for the appointment, dismissal, removal compulsory retirement or suspension of officers belonging to Class I of Central Service, proposals involving non-recurring expenditure not provided for in the Budget, and any other matter in which the Chief Commissioner felt that the Government of India should be consulted[1]

In the internal administration of the State the Chief Commissioner was expected to play a more important role than in a Part A State The Council of Ministers was to meet at such time and places as the Chief Commissioner directed and he himself presided over the meetings While the Ministers ran the departments and worked on the principle of joint responsibility, there was provision for all important matters being referred through the Chief Minister to the Chief Commissioner before issue of final orders In case of difference of opinion between the Chief Commissioner and the Council of Ministers, the subject in question as already noted, was to be referred to the President and his decision was binding[2]

Delhi As A Directly Administered Union Territory, 1956-66

Recommendations Of The States Reorganisation Commission

The system of popular government introduced in 1951 came to be very short lived The system of dual control or dyarchy

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[1] *Delhi State Rules of Business*, 1952, *Rules* 5, 50, 55 and 57.

[2] *Ibid*, *Rules* 19, 30, 51 and 52.

seemed to satisfy none. There was a general feeling that development in the State had been slow and administrative standards had gone down since the reform Some laid the blame on the inadequacy of the powers vested in the State Ministers and the excessive control exercised by the Government of India; others on the lack of initiative on the part of the State Government When the States Reorganisation Commission came to review the position in 1955, it was of the definite opinion that the existing system was quite unworkable There were three courses open (i) grant of the full powers of a State Government as in the case of Part 'A' States despite Delhi being the Central capital, (ii) grant of such powers excluding only New Delhi where the seat of the Government of India was actually located, and (iii) abolition of the popular government, making Delhi a wholly Central charge as in the period prior to 1951 In rejecting the first expedient, the Commission observed "It is hardly necessary to discuss in any detail the reasons why Delhi if it is to continue as the Union Capital, cannot be made part of a full-fledged constituent unit of the Indian Union Even under a unitary system of government, the normal practice is to place national capitals under a special dispensation

Capital cities possess, or come to possess, some degree of political and social predominance They are seats of national governments, with considerable property belonging to these governments Foreign diplomatic missions and international agencies are located in these capitals They also become centres of national culture and art So far as federal capitals are concerned, there is also an additional consideration Any constitutional division of powers, if it is applicable to units functioning in the seats of national governments, is bound to give rise to embarrassing situations Practice in other countries, administrative necessity and the desirability of avoiding conflicting jurisdictions, all point to the need for effective control by national governments over federal capitals"[1] The Commission did not also favour the suggestion that only New Delhi should be regarded as the national capital and the rest of the state accorded the benefits of popular government Old Delhi and New Delhi constituted, in its view, one integrated unit from the point of law and order, trade and commerce, and common public utility services, and it would be wholly unrealistic to draw a line between them. Drawing attention to the persistent demand for the amalgamation of the twin cities for civic purposes, it observed "If there is objection to the two areas being treated as two distinct units in the civic field, there will be even less justification for the assumption that administratively

[1] *Report of the States Reorgnisation Commission* (1955), *para*, 584

they can be placed under two different governments"[1] If both Old Delhi and New Delhi were excluded, there was little else left except the rural belt left for their normal expansion In view of these considerations, the Commission's felt that the only course open was to revert to the earlier position making the Delhi State a Centrally administered territory To satisfy the democratic aspirations of the citizens of Delhi to the extent possible, it recommended the creation of a municipal corporation with "greater local autonomy than is the case in some of the important federal capital[2]

Abolition Of Popular Government

The recommendations of the Commission were accepted In accordance with the provisions of the States Reorganisation Act, 1956, Delhi ceased to have a local legislature or a popular ministry and became a Union Territory on 1 November, 1956 A Municipal Corporation was also constituted in April, 1958 under the provisions of the Delhi Municipal Corporation Act, 1957, covering the entire Union Territory of Delhi, inclusive of the rural areas, but excluding New Delhi and the Cantonment area

The New Administrative Set-up

Under the new system of government, the Union Territory of Delhi became a Central charge, both in law and in fact the Administrator or the Chief Commissioner of the local government being appointed by the President of India and acting as his agent. The Central Ministers had the constitutional right to advise on matters concerning its administration as in other matters The Ministry of Home Affairs of the Government of India had the overall responsibility and acted as a coordinating agency, while specific matters coming within their purview were dealt with by the other Ministries Its budget formed part of the Central Government budget, and Parliament attended to its legislative and other needs Its accounts were subject to audit by the Accountant General, Central Revenues, and the Union Public Service Commission advised it in respect of recruitment and other establishment matters The administration of the Union Territory functioned as an integral part of the Central Government In view of the special nature of charge, the Government of India constituted an Advisory Committee to advise the Ministry of Home Affairs in respect of Delhi comprising the following Members of Parliament re-

[1] *Ibid.*, para, 588

[2] *Ibid*, para, 593

presenting Delhi, the Chief Commissioner of Delhi, the Vice-Chancellor of the University of Delhi, the Mayor of the Delhi Municipal Corporation, the Senior Vice-President of the New Delhi Municipal Committee, and the Minister for Home Affairs (President) The Committee was to meet at least once in three months It was to be consulted on general questions of policy, legislative proposals, the annual financial statement and such other financial questions as were specified in the rules framed by the President, besides matters referred to it at the discretion of the Home Minister The members had the right of interpellation as in Parliament, subject to the right of the Home Minister to refuse to give information or allow discussion on any matter in public interest[1]

The Reforms Of 1966

Constitution Of The Metropolitan Council

The categorical stand taken by the States Reorganisation Commission on the issue of democratic government for Delhi and the establishment of the Delhi Corporation with the widest measure of civic autonomy did not succeed in stifling the democratic aspirations of the citizens of Delhi There was mounting political pressure to get the issue reopened On 3 September, 1962, the Delhi Municipal Corporation, at a special meeting, passed a resolution protesting vigorously that there was "no justification whatsoever for discrimination against the Union Territory of Delhi in regard to establishing a popular and responsible government"[2] Although the Government of India was aware of the points made out by the States Reorganisation Commission, it felt that some concessions should be made to popular sentiment Following discussions with political parties and other interests, a new scheme of administration was promulgated under the Delhi Administration Act 1966, which came into force on 9 September, 1966

The Delhi Administration Act, 1966, forms the groundwork of the present system of administration in the Union Territory of Delhi Under this enactment, Delhi has a representative assembly (called Metropolitan Council) whose role is essentially advisory, and a small Executive Council which functions in strict

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[1] *Ministry of Home Affairs, Government of India Notification* No 19/30/56-SRI dated 8 November, 1956

[2] *Administrative Reforms Commission Report of the Study team, Administration of Union Territories and NEFA*, Sept , 1968, para 595

subordination to the head of the local government, now designated as Lt Governor, and the President of India. The constitutional responsibility of the Government of India for the administration of the Union Territory of Delhi, both in executive and legislative matters, remains the same as before the promulgation of this statute

The Council consists of 61 members—56 members directly elected through territorial constituencies on the basis of the same franchise as for national elections, and not more than 5 members nominated by the Central Government from among persons "not in the service of Government" Provision is made for reserving seats for the Scheduled Castes in proportion to their population strength in Delhi [1] A member of the Metropolitan Council cannot at the same time be a member of Parliament or of the Delhi Municipal Corporation [2] The life of the Council is normally five years, but it can be extended while a Proclamation of Emergency under Article 352(i) of the Constitution is in force [3] The Council elects its own Chairman and Deputy Chairman In the matter of procedure and privileges of members, its rules are more or less the same as those of the other legislative bodies in the country [4] It may be specifically mentioned that the members enjoy immunity from court proceedings "in respect of anything said or any vote given in the Metropolitan Council or any committee thereof [5]" As regards the scope of its activities, it is empowered "to discuss and make recommendations" with respect to the following matters insofar as they relate to Delhi

(a) Proposals for undertaking legislation with respect to any of the matters enumerated in the State list or the Concurrent list in the Seventh Schedule to the Constitution insofar as any such matter is applicable in relation to Union Territories

(b) Proposals for extension to Delhi of any enactment in force in the State relatable to any matter enumerated in the State list or the Concurrent list

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[1] *Delhi Administration Act*, 1966, s 3

[2] *Ibid.*, s 18

[3] *Ibid.*, s 10

[4] *Rule of Procedure and Conduct of Business in the Metropolitan Council of Delhi—Notification dated*, 14 *Nov.*, 1967

[5] *Delhi Administration Act*, 1966, s. 20

(c) Proposals for legislation referred to it by the Administrator with respect to any of the matters enumerated in the State list or the Concurrent list.

(d) The estimated receipts and expenditure pertaining to Delhi to be credited to and to be made from, the Consolidated Fund of India, and notwithstanding anything contained in the Delhi Development Act, 1957, the estimated receipts and expenditure of the Delhi Development Authority

(e) Matters of administration involving general policy and schemes of development insofar as they relate to matters enumerated in the State list or the Concurrent list

(f) Any other matter referred to it by the Administrator[1]

The resolution of the Metropolitan Council have no binding force in the matter of legislation, budget or any other matter either in law or by convention The Executive Council is, however, required under the Statute to take the recommendations of the Metropolitan Council into consideration and take such action as it deems fit, wherever necessary, the Administrator is to refer the recommendations along with the sentiments of the Executive Council, to the Government of India[2]

The Executive Council

The guiding principle in framing the constitution of the Executive Council is association of people's representatives in the task of administration in strict subordination not to the Metropolitan Council or even the Lt Governor, but to the President of India It is specifically provided in the Delhi Administration Act, 1966 "Notwithstanding anything in this Act, the Administrator and the members of the Executive Council shall be under the general control of, and comply with such particular directions, if any, as may from time to time be given by the President"[3] The Executive Council is to consist of not more than four members, one of whom is designated as the Chief Executive Councillor and others, as the Executive Councillors[4] These are appointed by the President of India and hold office during his pleasure There are no restrictions on the appointment of members except that no one can hold the post of Executive

[1] *Ibid*, s 22 (1)
[2] *Delhi Administration Act*, 1966, s 22(2).
[3] -s *Ibid*, s 30.
[4] *Ibid.*, s. 28 (1).

Councillor for more than six months without being a member of the Metropolitan Council.[1] They could be selected from any of the parties, or from among independent or nominated members of the Metropolitan council The Executive Council is "to assist and advise" the Lt Governor in the exercise of his functions in respect to matters enumerated in the State List or the Concurrent List, excepting where he is required by law to act "in his discretion"[2] This provision introduces the element of dyarchy in the Constitution The Administrator is required to act in his discretion with respect to law and order, including the organisation and discipline of police force, and such other matters as the President of India may specify from time to time The subjects at present "reserved" for the Lt Governor are law and order, including the organisation and discipline of the police force and the magistracy services including Secretariat administration, land and buildings (administration of *nazul* land, the Delhi Development Authority, aquisition, development and disposal of land, and the Master Plan of Delhi), and all matters relating to the appointment of the Members and the President of the New Delhi Municipal Committee, etc The Departments dealing with these Reserved Subjects are directly under the Lt Governor, while the others the Transferred subjects are under the charge of one or other of the Executive Councillors The distribution of the portfolios among the Executive Councillors as in 1972 is given in Appendix I The Lt Governor presides over the meetings of the Executive Council, in his absence the Chief Executive Councillor is entitled to preside over it The working of the government is on the same lines as the State Ministries, with this important difference the Lt Governor takes the place of the Chief Minister and plays a key role Matters of lesser importance are decided by the Executive Councillor concerned or at lower levels All matters of importance are required to be submitted to the Lt Governor before issue of orders, and those of cabinet importance come up before the Executive Council The Lt Governor at the level of policy-making and the Chief Secretary at the lower administrative level co-ordinate the work of the two wings, the Reserved and the Transferred, and also that of the several departments

In case of difference of opinion between the Administrator and an Executive Councillor the matter is to go before the Executive Council; where the difference is between the Administra-

[1] *Ibid*, s 28(4)

[2] *Ibid*, s 27(1)

tor and the Executive Council, it is to be referred to the Central Government for the decision, of the President[1] In matters pertaining to New Delhi, the Lt Governor is empowered to overrule the Executive Council and act entirely in his discretion.[2] Since the setting up of the Metropolitan Council and the Executive Council has not absolved the Government of India or Parliament of their constitutional responsibility for the proper administration of Delhi, a number of matters have to be referred to the Government of India in the Ministry of Home Affairs or the appropriate Ministry, of which the following may be mentioned

(a) all important cases raising questions of policy or of administrative importance,

(b) important cases which affect or are likely to affect the peace and tranquility of the Union Territory,

(c) cases which affect or are likely to affect the interest of any minority community, Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and backward classes,

(d) cases which affect the relations of the Central Government with any State Government, the Supreme Court, or the High Court exercising the jurisdiction in relation to the Union Territory,

(e) proposals for the appointment of the Chief Secretary, Finance Secretary, Development Commissioner and the Inspector General of Police and appointment to the post which carry a maximum salary of Rs 2,000 per month or more,

(f) proposals insofar as they relate to incurring of expenditure from the Consolidated Fund of India involving reappropriation of funds of specified categories creation of permanent posts in any Central Service, Class I, and temporary posts in such service for a period exceeding one year grant of expenditure sanctions for Rs 15 lakhs or more in the case of works and Rs 25 lakhs or more in the case of other schemes sanction of grants-in-aid or loans otherwise than in accordance with rules and principles approved by the Central Government.

[1] *Delhi Administration Act*, 1966 s s. 49-50

[2] *Delhi Administration Act*, 1966 s 27 (1), proviso 2

proposals for alienation of land-revenue of Rs 10,000 or more, alteration in the essential features of any approved Plan scheme, etc.;

(g) all matters relating to public works undertaken by the local administration in which the sanction of the Central Government or Chief Engineer or other engineering Officer is required under the Central Public Works code or orders of the Central Government issued in that behalf [1]

These provisions make it clear that the Central control over the administration of the Union Territory is expected to be wide, detailed and effective

Recommendations Of The Administrative Reforms Commission, 1968

It cannot be said that the reforms introduced in 1966 have satisfied the democratic aspiration of the citizens of Delhi or have given a quietus to the continual agitation centering round the subject The Administrative Reforms Commission, which examined the questions afresh in its report of September, 1968, recognised "the obvious advantages of direct Central administration of the national capital' so forcefully presented by the States Reorganisation Commission, but it did not consider it proper to scrap the popular set-up so recently introduced without giving it a fair trial [2] To make the system work better, it recommended "The guiding principle which should govern the relations of the Central Government with the Delhi Administration is that in respect of "transferred" subjects, irrespective of the legal position, the Central Government must treat the Delhi Administration in a manner similar to any State Government particularly in matters of day-to-day administration It will be necessary to ensure that the Central Government does not assume the responsibilities of an appellate forum against the actions of the Delhi Administration in this field In regard to "reserved" subjects however, where the Central Government's responsibility is directly relatable to the administration of the national capital, it will have to

[1] *The Delhi Administration* (Business) Rules, 1966, Notification No. 10/19 (66-S R) dated 7 Sept., 1966 Rules 55-56

[2] *A R. C report of the Study team--Admn. of Union Territories* & N F A Sept., 1968- *Recommendation*-174

take a detailed interest in their administration."[1] To secure this objective devolution of authority by convention the Commission have made a number of useful suggestions.[2]

Representation Of Delhi In Parliament

The Union Parliament has been functioning as the Local Legislature for Delhi, except during the period when it had a Legislature of its own. The subject of its representation in Parliament is, therefore, of particular importance. Under the Constitution, it had originally one seat in the Rajya Sabha and four seats in the Lok Sabha, one of the latter seats being reserved for a member of the Scheduled Castes.[3] With the re-organisation of States in 1956[4], its representation was raised to three in the Rajya Sabha and to five in the Lok Sabha.[5] The number of seats in Lok Sabha was raised to seven before the Forth General Election.

The General Administrative Set-Up

As Delhi houses the capital of the Indian Union, its activities and achievements attract the greatest attention, both within the country and abroad, and the administration is subject to greater pressures and tensions than elsewhere and is required to maintain the highest standards of efficiency. Prior to Independence, the administrative set-up was simple and small. In the last two decades there has been great expansion owing to several factors, notably the phenomenal growth in population consequent to the partition and the influx of the refugees and the increased tempo of developmental activities. There have been many organisational changes indicative of the period of flux and change, and a number of departments, as independent units, are of recent date. There were twenty-seven departments in 1972. Four of them was on the Reserved side, *viz.*, Services Department dealing with all service matters, Secretariat Administration Department, Home (Police) Department dealing with Police, Law and Order and Magistracy, and the Land and Building Department in charge of *Nazul* land, Delhi Development Authority and the

[1] *Ibid.*, *Recommendation* 176

[2] *Ibid.*, *Recommendation* 177-82

[3] *Fourth Schedule of the constitution and Fifth Schedule of the Representation of the People Act*

[4] *The Constitution* (Seventh Amendment) Act 1956.

[5] *The States Reorganisation Act*, No. 37 of 1956.

Master Plan of Delhi On the transferred side, there were 23 departments *viz.*, Home (General) Department in charge of Jails, Vigilance Department, Passports Department, Administrative Reforms Department, Local Self Government and Public Works Department, Revenue Department, Public Relations Department, Co-ordination Department in charge *inter-alia* of Zonal Councils, Delhi College of Engineering and residual work not alloted to any other department, Transport Department, Hindi Department, Food and Supplies Department, Medical Public Health and Family Planning Department, Law and Judicial Department, Industries Department, Labour Department, Employment, Training and Technical Education Department, Development Department in charge of Agriculture and Irrigation, Animal Husbandry, Harijan Welfare Community Projects, Panchayats, Social Welfare etc , and Planning Department Appendix II presents in detail the allocation of work among the various departments of the Delhi Administration

The Chief Secretary is the civilian head of the administration and he provides the link between the "Reserved" and the 'Transferred" departments at the administrative level The list of Secretaries Heads of department is given in Appendix III, alongwith the departments under them In quite a few cases, the heads of directorates or departments serve as Secretaries to Government Within each of the departments, there are central and field offices to carry out the several duties entrusted to them The history activities and achievements of the departments and directorates have received individual attention in the several chapters of the Gazetteer In view of the general nature of district administration and its intrinsic importance, an account of its organisational set up is given here

District Administration

The Deputy Commissioner, Delhi is the head of the district administration in the Union Territory of Delhi and is responsible for law and order, excise, issue of arms and explosive licences as well as the citizenship certificates

For administrative purpose, Delhi is divided into four districts viz , South, North, Central and New Delhi The South and New Delhi districts are under the control of one Additional District Magistrate The North and Central districts are under the charge of separate Additional District Magistrates In addition to maintenance of law and order, they have certain additional responsibilities.

Additional District Magistrate (South and New Delhi):

(a) Law and order, case work and other related items concerning South District

(b) General Administration Branch Section I (Establishment Branch) He will also be the head of the office

(c) Treasuries

(d) Account branch Section I

(e) Work relating to Entertainment Tax and Cinematograph Act

Additional District Magistrate (Central):

(a) Law and order, case work and other related items concerning Central District

(b) General Administration Branch Section II (Judicial-Branch)

(c) Requisition Branch

(d) Work relating to District soldiers, Sailors and Airmen's Board

(e) Co-ordination of work relating to Parliament

Additional District Magistrate (North & Excise):

(a) Law and order, case work and other related items concerning North District

(b) General Administration Branch Section III (Misc)

(c) Co-ordination of case work in all the three districts

(d) Collector of Excise

(e) Nari Niketan.

The four districts of Delhi are further sub-divided into 12 sub-divisions, *viz*, Parliament Street, Chanakyapuri, Lajpat Nagar (including Lodi Colony sub-division), Delhi Cantt (including Hauz Khas sub-division), Daryaganj, Kamla Market, Punjabi Bagh, Patel Nagar (including existing Original Road

sub-division), Kotwali, Sadar Bazar, Civil Lines (including Kingsway Camp sub-division), and Shahdara (including railway sub-division). Each of these 12 sub-divisions, is under the charge of a Sub-Divisional Magistrate.

The Deputy Commissioner's office has mainly two wings : (1) General Administration wing and (2) Revenue wing Apart from these two wings, the following four treasuries also function under the control of the Deputy Commissioner .

(i) Delhi Treasury

(ii) New Delhi Treasury

(iii) R K Puram Treasury

(iv) Man Singh Road Treasury

The Officer-in-charge of the above wings belong either to Indian Administrative Service or the DANI (Delhi, Andaman and Nicobar Islands) Civil Service.

Revenue-Administration work in the Deputy Commissioner's office is divided among the following four officers

(i) Revenue Assistant

(ii) Officer on special duty (Land reforms)

(iii) District Collection Officer and

(iv) Officer Incharge (Accounts-II)

All these four officers belong to DANI Civil Service an they work under the Additional District Magistrate (Revenue) In addition to the Additional District Magistrate (Revenue), ther is one Additional District Magistrate (Land acquisition) also H has five Land Acquisition Collectors under him who also belon to DANI Civil Service The details of the various branches i the Deputy Commissioner's office and the distribution of worl among the Additional District Magistrates and the Officers-ir charge of these branches is given in Appendix IV.

APPENDIX I

Distribution of portfolios among the member of the Executive Council (March, 1972)

Chief Executive Councillor .	1 Executive Council & Metropolitan Council Departments
	2 Public Relations
	3 Industry
	4 Education
	5 Planning
	6 Transport & Tourism
	7. Secretariat Administration
	8 Co-ordination
	9 Vigilance
Executive Councillor (Finance)	1 Development
	2 Panchyats and Cooperation.
	3 Law and Judicial
	4 L S G and P W.D.
	5 Irrigation & Flood controls
	6 Finance, Excise and Taxation.
Executive Councillor (Civil Supplies) .	1 Passports
	2 Food and Civil Supplies
	3 Rationing
	4 Electricity
	5 Labour and Employment and Training
	6 Administrative reforms
Executive Councillor (Medical)	1 Technical Education
	2 Jails
	3 Hindi
	4 Medical, Public Health an Family Planning
	5 Social Welfare & Harijan Welfare
	6 Revenue

APPENDIX II

Allocation of business among the departments of the Delhi Administration under the Business of the Delhi Administration (Allocation) Rules, 1966, *as in force in August* 1972

1 *Services Department*

Services I Department

1 All matters relating to appointment to gazetted posts excluding posts in Police Department and Delhi Administration Subordinate Service

2 Delhi Andaman Nicobar Islands Civil Service and Indian Administrative Service Cadre

3 All India civil list and Delhi Administration civil list of gazetted officers

4 Establishment matters relating to gazetted officers of the Secretariat e g

(i) Grant of leave (other than casual leave)

(ii) Grant of advances i e G P F , T A , Salary, Conveyance etc

(iii) Fixation of pay

(iv) Maintenance of personal files

(v) Crossing of Efficiency Bar

5 Preparation of bills for salary reimbursement of medical charges, Travelling Allowance, advances of all kinds, reimbursement of tuition fees etc , in respect of gazetted officers

6 Disciplinary proceedings against gazetted officers (other than police and Grade I officers of the Subordinate Service Cadre)

7 Annual property returns and other reports under rule 18 of the Central Civil Services (Conduct) Rules, 1964 in respect of gazetted officers other than Grade I officers of the Delhi Administration Sub-ordinate Service Cadre.

8. Appeals/Petitions/Representations under the Central Civil Services (Classification, Control and Appeal) Rules, 1965 in respect of the gazetted officers other than Police and Grade I Officers of the Subordinate Service Cadre.

9 Personal cases of all Heads of Departments.

10 Forwarding of application of Class I Officers of the Administration and Class II officers of the Secretariat for employment elsewhere

Services II Department :

1 All work relating to Subordinate Service Cadre and for posts for which recruitment/selection is centralised i e appointments, promotions, confirmation and inter-departmental postings and transfers of the concerned staff

2. Preparation of syllabus for holding of examinations for all grades of the Subordinate Service Cadre

3 Framing and interpretation of recruitment rules and procedure

4 Disciplinary cases against officers belonging to Grade I of the Subordinate Service Cadre and officers of other grades of that cadre employed in the Secretariat

5 Appeals/Petitions/Representations under the Central Civil Service (Classification, Control and Appeal) Rules, 1965, in respect of non-gazetted officials of the Secretariat

6 Postings and transfers of officers belonging to the Subordinate Service Cadre in the Secretariat

7 Work relating to the

(i) Delhi Administration Act

(ii) Central Civil Services (Classification, Control and Appeal) Rules

(iii) Central Civil Services (Conduct) Rules

(iv) Central Civil Services (Temporary Service) Rules

(v) Seniority Rules

8 Policy and advice on all establishment/service matters

9 Delegation of administrative powers to Heads of Departments and other subordinate authorities

Confidential Cell

1. All matters pertaining to Character Rolls including property returns.

2 Conducting examinations for direct recruitment to the various grades of Subordinate Services including examination for Departmental Subordinate Service

3 Training of various grades of Subordinate Service personnel as envisaged by the service rules (The drawing up of the training programme and conducting the same will however, be the responsibility of the Administrative Reforms Department)

4 Work relating to—

(i) Rules of Business and matters pertaining thereto

(ii) Business of the Delhi Administration (Allocation) Rules

(iii) Delhi Administration (Authentication) of orders and other instruments Rules

5 Appointment, Promotions & transfers etc of—

(i) Stenographers of all grades, and

(ii) Statistical posts

in the various offices under the Delhi Administration (including Administration Secretariat)

6 Advice in matters relating to service in respect of ex-cadre posts (non-gazetted)

7 All matters relating to the reservation of posts for Schedule Castes/Scheduled Tribes

2 Home Department

1 Police establishment and other service matters

2 Police budget.

3 Sanctions for contingencies

4 Police joint cadres.

5 Law and order cases

6 V I P and security arrangements.

7 Maintenance of confidential rolls of Class I & II officers of police department.

8 Deputation of police officers.

9 Verification reports of Foreigners Regional Registration Office.

10. Punjab Police Rules—Amendment of Police Act
11. Railway police
12. Executive Magistrate, conferment and withdrawal of powers
13. Criminal courts—working and supervision of
14. Preventive Detention Act Defence of India Rules, Bombay Police Act Gambling Act Prize Competition Act, Criminal Procedure Code and Indian Penal Code
15. Arms Act and rules made thereunder
16. Mercy Petitions and death cases
17. Civil Defence
18. Home Guards
19. Obscene literature
20. Young persons Harmful Publications Act
21. Verification of character and antecedents
22. Secret enquiries regarding financial position etc of the firms seeking Government patronage
23. National Emergency/National Security
24. Award of medals
25. Press and registration of books etc

3 *Land and Building Department*

1. Land & Development Office (Administration of *Nazul* Lands)
2. Delhi Development Authority
3. Public Premises (Eviction of Unauthorised Occupants) Act, 1958
4. Allotment/maintenance of government accommodation
5. Acquisition, development and disposal of land
6. Master Plan for Delhi
7. Requisition and acquisition of Immovable Property Act 1952

4 *Jail Department*

1. Jails
2. Jail manual

5 *Vigilance Department*

1. Vigilance

6 *Passport Department*

1 Administration of Foreigner's Act and rules in so far as Pakistan nationals are concerned

2 Administration of Citizenship Act and rules

3 Administration of Passport Act and rules

4 Grant of permanent resettlement facilities to Pakistan nationals

5 Grant/renewal extension of visas of Pakistan nationals

6 Miscellaneous work relating to International passports

7 Issue of India-Pakistan passport

8 Cases relating to the grant of visas and extension of Foreigners Act, excluding the Pakistan nationals

9 Prosecution, deportation of foreigners for violation of Foreigners Act, excluding the Pak-nationals

10 Attestation of documents to be sent outside India

11 Issue of India-Bangladesh passport

12 Renewal of India-Pakistan passports initially granted by the Administration

13 Refusal and impounding of India-Pakistan passports under the Passports Act, 1967

14 Prosecution under the provisions of the Passports Act 1967.

15 Cases under the Foreigners (Internment) Order, 1962 as amended by the Government of India Ministry of Home Affairs, New Delhi Order No 1/61/65-F.III dated 6-9-65 Foreigners (Internment Amendment) Order, 1965

16 Issue of "No Obligation to Return to India" certificate to Indian nationals who have gone abroad (America & Canada)

17. Recovery of repatriation charges.

18. Recovery of cable charges

7 *Administrative Reforms Department*

1. Work study in all departments under Delhi Administration
2. Formulation of proposals for administrative reforms etc.
3. Coordination, programming of studies and implementation of recommendations of the various study teams
4. Re-organisation including proposals for the creation of new posts.
5. Organisation and Methods
6. Training of subordinate service personnel

8 *Local Self Government and Public Works Department*

1. Municipal Corporation of Delhi
2. New Delhi Municipal Committee
3. References from Delhi Cantonment Board.
4. Public Works
5. Outstanding matters in respect of Delhi Fire Service

9 *Revenue Department*

1. Land and land tenures.
2. Agricultural loan inclusive of *Taccavi* loans (granted under well sinking scheme or for any other purpose)
3. Village officers and servants
4. Land Revenue and Revenue administration.
5. Collection of local cesses and other sums recoverable as land revenue
6. Soldiers, Sailors and Airmen's Board & post-war Reconstruction Fund.
7. Settlement
8. Land Records
9. Courts of Wards.

10 Consolidation of holdings.

11. Quarries.

12. Scarcity and Famine Relief.

13. Conferment/withdrawal of revenue powers.

14. Revenue Courts.

15 Emergency Relief.

16 Evacuee Interest (Separation) Act, 1951.

10 *Public Relations Department*

1 Directorate of Public Relations.

2 Preparation of lists of official and non-official invitees of Delhi Administration.

3 Delhi Gazette.

4 Press and Registration of Books Act

11 *Coordination Department*

1 Annual Administration Report

2 Zonal Councils including Northern Zonal Council.

3. Estimates Committee and Parliament questions

4. Grant of relief to political sufferers/political pensions and Haj committee

5 Holidays.

6. References from Prime Minister/President of India.

7. Civil and Criminal writs and summons.

8. Recovery of loans granted to Burma evacuees.

9. Residual work which is not specifically allotted to any department.

10. Delhi College of Engineering

12. *Transport Department*

1. Directorate of Transport.

2. Transport Laws.

3. Tourism.

4 Delhi State Central Workshop.

13 *Secretariat Administration Department*

1. Maintenance and weeding of the Secretariat records.
2. Official Gazettes
3. General registry and despatch.
4. Staff cars
5. Staff car rules.
6. Maintenance of the duplicating machines and duplicating of stencils
7. Secretariat accounts, cash, pay bills etc
8. Liveries
9. Telephones
10. Secretariat budget
11. Stationery, printing and type-writers
12. Secretariat stores
13. Secretariat buildings
14. Administrator's discretionary grant.
15. Appointments to Secretariat posts not included in any cadre or for which recruitment/selection is not centralised e g technical assistants, translators, staff car drivers, class IV posts etc
16. Disciplinary proceedings against officers mentioned in item 15 above
17. Forwarding of application of non-gazetted employees of the Secretariat for employment elsewhere
18. Establishment matters relating to non-gazetted staff of the Secretariat e g
    - (i) Grant of lave (other than casual leave).
    - (ii) Grant of advance i e G P.F., festival, travelling Allowance salary, conveyance etc.
    - (iii) Fixation of pay.
    - (iv) Maintenance of service books & personal files.
    - (v) Crossing of Efficiency Bars.

19 Maintenance of G.P F. accounts of class IV staff.

20. Welfare.

21 Overtime allowance, pension of non-gazetted staff.

22 Refreshment Bill and repairs to typewriters.

23. Preparation of salary bills etc. of non-gazetted staff.

24 Flag Day/Red Cross/T B Seal

25 Information relating to death reversion and transfer of the employees who are allottees of government accommodation

26 Three monthly statement in respect of Class IV government servants who are allottees of government accommodation

14 *Hindi Department*

1 Implementation of the directions of the Government of India in respect of use of Hindi in the government offices.

2 Implementation of the recommendations of the Hindi Advisory Board

3 Translation of manuals, rules, bye-laws, forms, proformae, terms, stamps, designations, etc. in use in the Delhi Administration.

4 Training in Hindi shorthand and typewriting

15 *Food and Supplies Department*

1 Civil Supplies, including work relating to iron & steel.

2 Food

3 All food and civil supplies laws

4 Sugar

5. Coal.

6 Salt

7 Kerosene oil

8 Textiles

9 Auto and Cycle rickshaw tyres & tubes

16. *Medical, Public Health and Family Planning Department*

1 All medical institutions run by the Delhi Administration

17. *Law and Judicial Department*

1 Administration of justice.
2. Establishment of Civil courts
3. Appeals against acquittals
4 Additional courts.
5 Official receivers
6 Legal practitioners
7. Civil law and procedure
8. Legacies.
9. Notary Public
10 Law officers
11 Advice on legal matters
12 Supervision of government litigation
13 Drafting of bills and statutory rules and orders
14 Elections
15. Law reforms
16 Money lending and money lenders
17 Various marriage acts
18 Charitable endowments, Muslim wakfs, Sikh gurdwaras and temples
19. Public trusts
20. Judicial magistrates, conferment/withdrawal of powers

18 *Industries Department*

1 Industries.
2 Weights and Measures
3 Commerce.
4 Work relating to the registration of firms and societies
5 Gold control
6 Electricity

19 *Labour Department*

1 Labour settlement of disputes and enforcement of labour laws.
2 Enforcement of Boilers & Electricity Acts.

3. Trade Unions.
4 Subsidised industrial housing scheme.
5 Administration of labour welfare schemes.

20 *Employment Training and Technical Education Department*

1 Employment services including employment exchanges, vocational Guidance & Employment Market Information units

2 Craftsmen training scheme, which covers Industrial Training Institutes

3 Apprenticeship scheme under Apprenticeship Act, 1961.

4 Technical education including polytechnics and excluding Delhi College of Engineering which constitutes a separate department of the Admn and College of Hotel Management and catering which is under the Government of India, directly

5 Board of Technical Education, Delhi The following are the institutions affiliated to the Board of Technical Education, Delhi

(i) New Delhi Women's Polytechnic, New Delhi

(ii) Sharda Ukil School of Art, New Delhi.

(iii) Jamia Millia Islamia, New Delhi

21 *Development Department*

1 Agriculture
2 Veterinary
3 Agricultural indebtedness
4 Fisheries
5 Dairy development
6 Poultry.
7 Forest and forest produce.
8 Community projects
9 Irrigation
10 Loans granted under the Community Development/National Extension Service Programme
11 Harijan welfare
12 Claims
13. Panchayats
14 Social Welfare Directorate.

15 Prevention of cruelty to Animals Act

16 Punjab Wild Birds and Wild Animals Protection Act as extended to Delhi

22 *Planning Department*

1 Five year plans

2 Evaluation Cell

3 Bureau of Economics and Statistics

23 *Education Department*

1. All matters connected with staff of government schools/head quarters staff (other than provident fund, advances, condonation of break in service, arrear claims of class III and IV employees)

2 Examination branch

3 Budget (Plan).

4 Plan schemes

5 All matters connected with government aided schools/schools under local bodies and miscellaneous matters relating to local bodies

6 Rashtriya Indian Military College/scholarships/youth vocational centres and concessions to goldsmiths

7 Propogation and development of Hindi/Sanskrit

8 Grants-in-aid/financial assistance to scholars

9 Indian War Museum

10 Delhi Education Code/clarification in regard to qualifications, etc

11 Fees and funds/seminars

12 Social education/physical education/text book committee

13 Weeding out of old records

14 Matters pertaining to provident fund, advance, condonation of break in service, arrear claims of class III and IV employees

15 Accommodation including provision of tents and capital works.

16 Purchase and condemnation of stores.

17 Colleges

24 *Irrigation and Flood Control Department*

1 All matters relating to irrigation and flood control

25 *Executive Council Department*

1 Meetings of the Executive Council and their follow up

2 Salaries and allowances of the Executive Councillors

3 Staff meetings and their follow up

4 Various other autonomous boards functioning under the Delhi Administration

5 Secretariat Library

26. *Metropolitan Council Department*

1 All matters relating to the business of Metropolitan Council

2 Rules of Business of the Metropolitan Council

3 Proceedings of the Metropolitan Council and their editing.

4 Salaries and allowances in respect of Chairman, Deputy Chairman and members of the Metropolitan Council

27 *Finance Department*

1 Policy formulation and administrative decisions on important matters referred to the Finance (Genl) Department by the following departments

(i) Sales Tax Department

(ii) Excise Department

(iii) Entertainment and Betting Tax Department

(iv) Registration & Stamps Department

(v) Chit Fund Department

(vi) Delhi Financial Corporation

(vii) Treasuries.

2 Interpretation and advice relating to the following

(i) Capitation taxes *viz* taxes on the sale and purchase of goods

(ii) Taxes on luxuries including tax on entertainment, amusement, betting and gambling

(iii) Intoxicating liquors, narcotic drugs, opium and dangerous drugs

(iv) Cinematographs Act

3 Excise duties on

(i) Alcoholic liquors for human consumption

(ii) Opium, Indian hemp and other narcotic drugs and narcotics

4 (a) Amendments of

(i) Sales Tax Act and rules

(ii) Excise Act and Manual

(iii) Stamps

(iv) Court fees and registration

(b) Initiation of proposals to the Government of India regarding amendment of

(i) Entertainment and Betting Tax Act

(ii) Cinematograph Act

5 Administration of rules

(i) Delegation of Financial Powers Rules

(ii) Fundamental and Supplementary Rules

(iii) General Financial Rules

(iv) Treasury Rules

(v) G P F Rules

(vi) Central Civil Service Pension Rules

(vii) Central Civil Service Leave Rules

(viii) Leave Travel Concession Rules

(ix) House Building Advance Rules

(x) Civil Service Regulations etc

6 Budgetary control on the Area Demand

7 Review of monthly expenditure returns from various department

8 Appropriations accounts/re-appropriation of funds, audit/inspection reports, reports of Public Account Committee, supplementary grants

9 Control on the expenditure incurred under the powers delegated to the Delhi Administration

10. Advice to the administrative departments on matters relating to financial implications

11 Internal audit including examination of local funds and inspection of accounts of grant-in-aid receiving institutions.

12 Co-ordination of audit objections and paras of the inspection reports and the follow up action for prompt settlement

13 Management of Delhi Jawans Welfare Fund

14 Selection and deputation of S A.S Accountants/Accounts Officers in various departments of Delhi Administration

15 National Savings Schemes

16 Compulsory Deposit Scheme

17 Allotment of funds for purchase of conveyance, fans etc

18 Foreign exchange

APPENDIX III

Statement showing the charge of Secretaries in the Delhi Administration

(August, 1973)

Sl No	Designation	Subjects
1	2	3
1	Chief Secretary . .	1 Home 2 Services 3 Passport 4. Tourism 5 Transport. 6 Confidential Cell

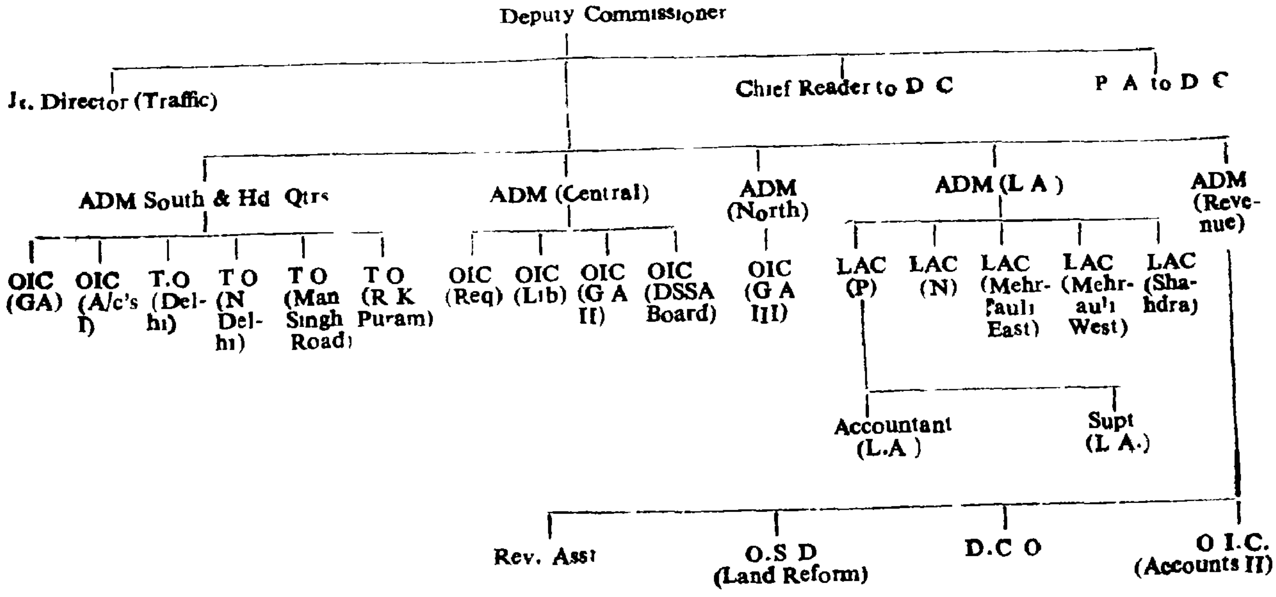
APPENDIX III—*Contd.*

1	2	3
		7 Education
		8 Executive Council
		9 Vigilance (as Chief Vigilance Officer)
		10 Gazetteer
2	Secretary (Admn) .	1 Admn (House keeping)
		2 Public grievances
		3 Administrative reforms
		4 Training
		5 Examination Cell (LDCs. UDCs) Asstts & Inspectors etc)
		6. S C /S T in services matters
3	Secretary (Finance)	1 Finance
		2 Planning
		3 Excise
		4 Taxation (incl registration stamps, entertainment)
		5 Evaluation
		6 Economics & statistics
		7 Sales Tax
		8 Chit Fund.
4	Secretary (LSG&PWD)	1 Local Self Government (MCD, NDMC & Delhi Cantt. Board)
		2 PWD
		3 Loans (House building)
5	Secretary (Law & Judl)	1 Government Litigation
		2 Legal matters
		3 Bills, rules & orders
		4 Charitable endowments
		5 Muslim wakfs
		6 Sikh Gurdwaras & temples
		7 Public trusts
		8 Metropolitan Council
		9 Elections.

APPENDIX III—*Contd*

1	2	3
6	Director of Vig. & Ex-Officio Secy (Vig.) and Inspr. General of Prisons.	1. Vigilance. 2. Coordination. 3. Public relations 4. Secretariat work regarding College of Engineering
7	Deputy Commissioner & Ex-officio Secretary (Rev.).	1. Revenue. 2. Irrigation & flood control
8	Director, E T. & T.E & Ex-officio Secretary (E T & T.E.)	1. Employment. 2. Training (Vocational) 3. Technical Education
9	Director of Industries & Ex-officio Secy (Industries)	1 Industries 2. Weights & Measures. 3 Electricity
10	Director of Education & Ex-officio Additional Secy. (Education).	1. Education 2. Hindi.
11	Labour Commissioner & Ex-officio Secy. (Labour)	1. Labour. 2. Factories & Boilers 3. Fair wages 4. Shops & Establishment.
12	Development Commissioner & Ex-officio Secretary (Development & Social welfare)	1 Development 2. Social Welfare. 3. Panchayats. 4. Harijan welfare. 5 Co-operative.
13	Commissioner, Food & Supplies and Ex officio Sey. (Food & Supplies).	1. Food & supplies.
14	Dy. Housing Commissioner & Ex-officio Secretary (Land & building).	1. Land & building.
15	Director of Transport & Ex-officio Special Secy. (Transport).	1. Transport. 2. Tourism.
16	Registrar, Coop. Societries & Ex-officio Special Secy. (Coop.)	1. Cooperative Socieites

APPENDIX IV



O.I C.	—	Officer Incharge
G.A.	—	General Administration
T O	—	Treasury Officer
L A C	—	Land Acquisition Collector
D C O	—	District Collection Officer
D S S A	—	District Soldiers, Sailors & Airmen Board

CHAPTER XI

REVENUE ADMINISTRATION

Land Revenue Administration

History Of Land Revenue Assessment

According to the District Gazetteer of Delhi, (1912)* the early revenue administration of the district was crude, not to say arbitrary. For collection of revenue, strong pressure was brought to bear on the subordinates beginning at the Tahsildar, who was personally held responsible for the arrears. The pressure was passed on to the Zamindars in the shape of quartering *sawars* on the villages till the revenue was paid. In the circumstances, complaints were made about cultivators *en masse* deserting the villages during or at the end of the short lease In order to give relief, the assessment was reduced from Re. 1 to 12 annas per *kacha bigha* of *khadar* land and 12 annas in the *bangar* lands Even the incidence of these indulgent rates worked out to about Rs. 4-12-0 and Rs 3-10-0 per acre

The early revenue arrangements seemed to have been made as far as possible on the basis of then existing arrangements without considering whether those assessments were just or not or whether the changed circumstances demanded any modification in the rates of assessment In the early days, the settlement was more or less continuous and was intended apparently to last for a few years or until it broke down For example, in Sonepat, the settlements were made (a) on the existing demand before 1817, (b) by first summary settlement from 1817-18 to 1824-25, (c) by a series of agreements from 1825-26 to 1829-30, and (d) by second summary settlement from 1830-31 to 1840-41. Despite these settlements, there were several cases of the breakdown of the settlements and the years were noted as *tahsilkham* The villages were, therefore, farmed out for collection of land revenue

These settlements were bound to be empirical, because there were no regular records and the initial assessments were made on the basis of the sums recovered from farmers under the native rule. Further, the assessments were pitched too high for collection and there was no machinery for ensuring elasticity in collection

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**District Gazetteer of Delhi* (1912) pages 180-81.

The First Regular Settlement (1842-44)

Regular settlement in the three tahsils of the district were made from 1842-1844 The settlement operations, however, did not cover the estate belonging to the Raja of Ballabgarh, other *jagirdars* and chiefs The demand for the whole district was fixed at Rs 7 50 lakhs, which was divided as under·

	Rs lakh
Sonepat	3 50
Delhi *Khalsa*	3 05
Ballabgarh *Khalsa* .	0 95
	7 50

In these assessments, it was recognised that the former pitch of assessment was excessive with the result that in Delhi tahsil, the assessments were reduced by 10%

During the Revolt of 1857, the revenue records were destroyed By way of punishment, the estates of all rebels were escheated and three villages in Sonepat tahsil, 61 villages in Delhi tahsil and 134 villages in Ballabgarh tahsil of the king of Delhi, the King of Oudh, the Nawab of Jhajjar, Raja of Ballabgarh, *jagirdars*, etc , were subjected to summary settlement of the order of Rs 2 50 lakhs Thus, the total assessment of the district amounted to Rs 10 lakhs Rs 7 50 lakhs of the First Regular Settlement and Rs 2 50 lakhs of summary settlement But these assessments proved to be too heavy and before the Second Regular Settlement was undertaken, the reduction in assessment was granted to the tune of Rs 78,000 mainly on the ground of over-assessment

Since the bulk of the assessments was framed under the North-West Provinces Rules based on Regulation IX of 1883, the standard assessments were fixed at two-thirds of the assets of the estimates

The Second Regular Settlement (1880)

The revision of the First Regular Settlement began in 1872 and was completed in 1880 The principles of assessments as embodied in Act XXIII of 1871 were followed, i e , instead of a two-thirds asset standard, half the net asset standard was adopted in this revision The records were thoroughly revised Both the record of rights and other statistical records were prepared in forms which did not much differ from those which exist today This revision settlement had two remarkable features, namely

introduction of fluctuating assessment in a few villages affected by the Najafgarh *Jhil* and (2) institution of dry assessment in the canal villages supplemented by a fluctuating owner's rate

The revised assessment aggregated to Rs 9,67,142 as against the previous aggregate demand of Rs 9,22,166 But fresh revenue of Rs 1,22,662 was levied as fluctuating revenue obtainable in the guise of the owner's rate The incidence of land revenue therefore worked out to Rs 1-13-6 per acre The Punjab Government sanctioned the revision settlement and placed the Delhi district in the first class in the State

The Third Regular Settlement (1910)

The third settlement began in 1906 and was completed in 1910 by Major H C Beadon, the Settlement Officer During these operations, remeasurements were made of maps of 74 villages prepared in 1880 The Record of Rights was also prepared according to the Punjab Land Revenue Act, 1887 A forecast report was prepared by Beadon, which satisfied Government that a revision settlement was advisable on account of increase in prices (15%), extension of irrigation (20%) and a small extension of cultivation (3%) Assessment circles were fixed for the three tahsils as under

Tahsil	*Assessment circle*
Sonepat	*Khadar* (low riverine tract)
	Bangar (up-lands)
Delhi and	*Khadar*
Ballabgarh	*Bangar*
	Dabar (hill areas)
	Kohi (areas on sides of hills)

Khandarat (area round-about Delhi)*

Among these circles the soils were classified into garden, *chahi*, *nahri*, *sailab*, *bhur*, and *barani* and soil rates were fixed accordingly

The new assessment aggregated to Rs 15,79 377, which meant an increase of 22 5% over the previous settlement.

*Area covered by the ruins of Delhi cities

Assignment Of Land Revenue

The assignment of land revenue fell into two classes, *viz*., (a) those which were granted before The Revolt and continued afterwards, when it was proved that the assignees had taken no part in the rising and (b) those which were granted after The Revolt generally for loyal services. The former include a large number of petty assignments for the upkeep of shrines and groves.

During the Second Regular Settlement, all these assignments were very carefully scrutinized and recorded in six separate registers, having regard to the nature of the assignments, as shown below:

(1) Perpetual *mafis* granted before 1857 which were alienable,

(2) Perpetual *mafis* granted after 1857 which were not alienable,

(3) Quasi-perpetual *mafis* which were held during the pleasure of Government,

(4) Conditional *mafis* which were granted subject to the assigned revenues being spent on the upkeep of religious institutions,

(5) Conditional *mafis* which were granted subject to the land being kept under trees, and

(6) Temporary *mafis* which were to be resumed as they lapse.

It must be noted that all these assignments (*mafis*) were grants of land revenue only (*mafis* or *jagirs*) and that the ownership over the land remained with Government. They were grants not of land but of land revenue only.

The Crown Lands

The Crown lands were the property of the Crown acquired almost entirely through escheat after the Revolt. These were divided into two categories, *viz*.,

(i) the *taiul* land—lands which were originally owned by the King of Delhi (the peculium of the King), and

(ii) the *nazul* land-other remaining Crown lands or other non-departmental states lands which might be rural or urban.

The rural *nazul* lands were difficult to administer and therefore such lands, which were situated more than six miles from the limits of Delhi, were ordered to be sold

These Crown lands were cultivated by tenants, who paid as rent the land revenue and cesses and a *malikana,* varying according to the status of the tenant Blocks of valuable grazing waste lands were leased for cash rents A part of the rural *nazul* land within the precincts of *mauza* Delhi was vested in the Municipal Committee for management

Urban *nazuls* comprised town sites, building sites and non-agricultural land in Delhi and its suburbs, which were vested in the Municipal Committee Ground rents were realised from them.

For the purpose of collecting land revenue, the villages were classed as (a) secure (b) insecure, and (c) very insecure, according to the extent to which they were protected by irrigation.

The Present Position Of The Settlement

At present, the third revision settlement made in the years 1908-10 is in force

Normally, the provisions for the settlement of land revenue are embodied in the land revenue act of a State Strangely enough, the Delhi Land Revenue Act, 1954, does not make any provision for the land revenue settlement But detailed provisions are made in the Delhi Land Reforms Act, 1954 So far, no revision settlement has been undertaken in accordance with these provisions However, under the provisions of the Delhi Land Reforms Act, 1954, the Chief Commissioner* is empowered to undertake settlement of land revenue of the whole or part of the State, which would be called the first settlement The revision settlement may be undertaken after thirty years from the first settlement, but no enhancement of revenue shall take effect before the expiration of the settlement in force

In the case of any precarious tract or alluvial areas, the Chief Commissioner is empowered to reduce the 30 years term of settlement

Procedure For Settlement

The Settlement Officer or Assistant Settlement Officer appointed for the purpose is to inspect every village under settlement and divide the State or parts ino soil classes and assessment circles.

The unit of assessment is to be the village and the aggregate of the land revenue payable by all *Bhumidars* in respect of lands

*Read LT Governer for Chief Commissioner

situated in the village shall be deemed as the land revenue assessed on that village Certain lands of common utility *viz*, pasture lands, cremation or burial grounds, *abadi* sites and path-ways, etc. vested in Gaon Sabha are exempted from assessment of land revenue

Principles Of Assessment

In assessment of land revenue for a holding in an assessment circle, the Settlement Officer is to consider the estimated average surplus produce of such holding remaining after deducting the ordinary expenses of cultivation as estimated under the rules The land revenue is to be such percentage of the surplus produce, as may be fixed by the Chief Commissioner on the recommendation of the Settlement Officer The percentage of land revenue to the surplus produce shall vary according to a graduated scale prescribed by the Chief Commissioner It shall be the largest on the holdings with the highest surplus produce and the smallest on holdings with the lowest surplus produce The orders of the Chief Commissioner in this respect are final and are not be challenged in a court of law

The Chief Commissioner may also direct a revision of settlement in any area, if he is satisfied that there has been a substantial decline in the prices of agricultural produce and which is likely to continue for some time

Land System

Land Tenure

According to the Delhi District Gazetteer (1912), there were 773 villages in the district They were subsequently recognised as *mauzas* or revenue estates Out of them 56 were classed as *zamindari*, 321 *pattidari* and 396 *bhaichara* An estate could from the beginning be either *pattidari* or *bhaichara*, but it was *zamindar khalis*, i e, owned by a single proprietor With the multiplication of branches of the family, descendants partitioned of their shares and the tenure became divisional or *pattidari* If the whole village was partitioned the tenure was complete *pattidari* But ordinarily some land (normally grazing land) has been left undivided and common In that case, the land tenure became incomplete *pattidari*. With further sub-divisions, no common land except roads and tanks remained and the measure of right remained the individual holding The tenure then became *bhaichara*

Such are the broad stages of the evolution of the land tenures in the district, but variations were found in individual villages where the whole or part of the village community kept some land in common

The sub-divisions of a village were known by various names such as *pana* or a *taraf* and the minor sub-divisions by *patti* or *thula* These differences in the constitution of the villages were reflected in the method of payment of land revenue to Government But the different systems of payment were no true criterion because of introduction of an *abiana* assessment on wells and distribution of assessment on soil as a measure of equity As a result, even the villages returned as *zamindari* or *pattidari* paid land revenue not according to share or sub-divisions but according to possession alone, as if the tenure was *bhaichara*. People as a rule preferred to the revenue to be distributed according to possession The differences in the method of payment of land revenue among the villages were reflected as under .

Method of payment	Number of villages
by a common rate on all land	103
by soil rates . .	630
by primary sub-divisions initially	5
by ancestral shares	35
TOTAL .	773

Tenants

It is of interest to know the manner in which the land was occupied at the time of the Third Revenue Settlement. (1910) It was as given below

Cultivating occupancy	Percentage
(1) Occupied by owners	56
(2) held by tenants free of rent	2
(3) held by occupancy tenants on cash rents	9½
kind rents .	½
(4) held by tenants-at-will on cash rents .	25
kind rents	7½

The *khudkasht* lands were gradually being reduced from 65% at the last settlement to 56% in 1910 Tenants holding free of rent were usually *brahmins* and menials, who were allowed to cultivate lands free of rent for services The *brahmins* were called *dholidars* and the menials *bhondidars* The average size of the holdings of tenants with or without occupancy rights was just under two acres.

Occupancy tenants, who comprised 9%, paid rents at revenue rates with or mostly without additional *malikana*. Many occupancy tenants had nebulous rights. Even *dholidars* and *bhondidars* were recorded as occupancy tenants through misunderstanding.

Lastly, 32½% of the land was cultivated by tenants-at-will who usually belonged to the same community as the landlords and hereditary tenants. Many tenants-at-will paid no rent beyond the Government dues for their lands and like the occupancy tenants were in a powerful position. They regarded themselves as owners.

In connection with the gardens, a curious tenure known as *Sardarakhti* tenure developed. A *Sardarakhtidar* was a man who was a tenant of the land paying rent to the owner but who was the owner of the trees. He paid rent from Rs. 6 to Rs. 8 per acre, but where the quasi-*batai* rent was paid, the land owner received one fourth of the price of fruits sold.

Another curious tenure known as *makbuza* had also cropped up. Under this tenure, the State or any public body with the consent of the owner took possession of land free of cost for public purpose. This tenure originated when waste land had no great value and when zamindars did not mind their lands being utilised in this manner.

Rents

As stated before, 42% of the cultivated land was held by tenants paying rents. Occupancy tenants seldom paid produce rents. When they were paid by tenants-at-will, there was generally a special local reason such as local custom or precarious cultivation. The usual rate of *batai* was one-half. In canal tracts the owner and the tenant shared the Government dues, the cost of seed and the produce according to the *batai* rate. Cash rents paid by occupancy tanants were almost invariably rents expressed in terms of land revenue. Tenants-at-will, however paid *chakota* rents which were usually fixed at a rate calculated on the area. Rents in respect of unirrigated land varied largely in different circles from Re. 1 per *bigha* in richer circles to 10 annas in poorer circles. Rents in respect of the irrigated land averaged double of those on the local *barani*. But where irrigation was good, the rents were high.

Between World War II and the enforcement of the Delhi Land Reforms Act, 1954, there was practically no change in the land revenue of the State Minor changes occurred due to the alluvial lands (subject to fluctuations of the rivers) which were assessed periodically to land revenue and acquisition or alienation of land The last revision settlement, which took place in 1910, guaranteed land revenue for a period of 30 years

The incidence* of land revenue assessment on the area and population of the Delhi Territory from 1920-21 to 1953-54 was as under

Year	Incidence of land revenue per acre	in rupee per capita
1920-21	1-0-10	0-12-6
1930-31	1-4-2	0-11-7
1940-41	1-0-7	0-6-7
1950-51	1-0-10	1-0-10
1953-54	0-15-4	0-15-4

Land Revenue Legislation

Prior to the enactment of the Delhi Land Revenue Act, 1954 and the Delhi Land Reforms Act, 1954, the land revenue of the Territory was regulated by the provisions of the Punjab Land Revenue Act, 1887, and the United Provinces Land Revenue Act, 1901 in the constituent areas, which originally belonged to the States of Punjab and United Provinces The Delhi Land Revenue Act, 1954, which was brought into force with effect from March 1, 1963, has repealed these Acts of 1887 and 1901 As a result, the assessment and collection of land revenue and the revenue administration are now governed by the Delhi Land Revenue Act, 1954 and the Delhi Land Reforms Act, 1954 While provisions regarding the administration of land revenue *viz*, liability to pay land revenue, its suspension, remission, collection and recovery are contained in Delhi Land Reforms Act, 1954, the Delhi Land Revenue Act, 1954 provides for the maintenance of land records *viz* village maps and field book, boundary marks, list of villages and record of rights etc.

*Quoted in the *Census of India*, 1961, *District Census Handbook*, Delhi pp 234-235

Administration Of Land Revenue Under Delhi Land Reforms Act, 1954 And Delhi Land Revenue Act, 1954

Liability To Pay Land Revenue

There is no uniformity as regards the liability to pay land revenue to government on admission to or on acquisition of the *bhumidari* rights While the original proprietors pay land revenue as before in respect of the *sir* or *khudkasht* under Section 11, *bhumidars*, who are deemed non-occupancy tenants under the Act, and the sub-tenants declared *bhumidar* have to pay land revenue equal to half of the amount of rent payable in the *fasli* year, subject to the condition that the new land revenue is not to be more than double or less than the former land revenue

Asamis admitted as *bhumidars* by the Gaon Sabha have to pay land revenue equal to 50% of the rent calculated at the village rate of rent

Bhumidars have to pay to Government all the cesses, local rates and *sayar* proportionately to the land revenue in respect of all the lands held by them unless exempted The payment is to be made in instalments and on the dates prescribed by the Deputy Commissioner which is 15th January for *kharif* and 15th June, for *rabi fasal* otherwise it will become an arrear of land revenue

The payment may be ordinarily made at the Reserve Bank of India through the office of the Tahsildar or it can be remitted through money order also However, where *amins* have been appointed for collection of land revenue, payment is made to the *amins*

Suspension Or Remission Of Land Revenue

The Chief Commissioner is empowered to remit or suspend for any period the whole or part of land revenue of any holding and may grant corresponding relief in the payment of rent to an *asami* during an agricultural calamity The remission or suspension order cannot be questioned in a civil or revenue court The relief in the revenue of a holding shall ordinarily be on the following scale

Loss measured in annas per rupee of normal produce	Relief of land revenue per rupee
(a) 8 annas but less than 10 annas . . .	6 annas
(b) 10 annas but less than 12 annas	10 annas
(c) 12 annas and above	1 rupee

In case of precarious areas, relief to the extent of 4 annas in a rupee of land revenue may be granted, when such loss of produce is 6 annas but less than 8 annas The scale is applicable to the *asamis* under Gaon Sabha The Deputy Commissioner is empowered to suspend revenue and rent for a period of three months, but suspension for a longer period requires the sanction of the Chief Commissioner

Collection Of Land Revenue

The Chief Commissioner is empowered to employ any agency for the collection of land revenue He may charge any Gaon Sabha with the duty of realising land revenue and other dues in its area Every *bhumidar* shall then be liable to pay land revenue to the concerned Gaon Panchayat The Gaon Panchayat will be paid remuneration at the prescribed rates for the collection work

The Act abolishes the posts of *lambardars*, *zaildars* and *inamdars* including *safedposh* whose place has been taken by the *bailiffs*, who now collect revenue in the Territory

Procedure For the Recovery Of Land Revenue

The Act provides for the recovery of land revenue by various methods *viz*., by serving a writ or arrest or detention of the defaulter attachment and sale of his movable and immovable property including produce and the sale and attachment of the holding in respect of which the arrear is due

The Deputy Commissioner is also empowered to attach the village or its area from which the arrear of land revenue is due and place it under his own management for a period not exceeding three years after which the village shall be restored free of any claim on the part of the Government for any arrear of land revenue From the collections made during the period, the instalment of land revenue and the arrears of land revenue are to be adjusted The Deputy Commissioner is also empowered to let out the holding from which the arrear or land revenue is due to any person other than the defaulter for a period not exceeding ten years on terms and conditions fixed by the Chief Commissioner after which the holding will be restored to the tenure-holder without any claim for arrear During the attachment period or the lease period, payment of rent and other dues shall be made to the Deputy Commissioner.

Maintenance Of Land Record

The Delhi Land Revenue Act, 1954 enjoins upon the Deputy Commissioner to maintain a map and a field book of each village and to record in it all the changes in the boundaries annually or at intervals

Boundary Marks

The *bhumidars* are responsible to maintain permanent boundary marks lawfully erected in their fields The Gaon Sabhas have similarly to maintain legally erected boundary marks in the villages within their jurisdiction In case, a *bhumidar* or a Gaon Sabha fails to erect, repair or renew such boundary marks in a prescribed manner within a specified period of thirty days, the Deputy Commissioner has the power to get the job done and recover the charges in such proportion as he deems fit from the *bhumidar* or the Gaon Sabha concerned The Revenue Assistant is responsible to see that the boundaries and survey marks are properly maintained

List Of Villages

The Deputy Commissioner is responsible for the preparation and maintenance of a list of all such villages which have areas liable to fluvial action, have precarious cultivation and are revenue-free lands Such list is to be revised every five years in the prescribed manner

Record Of Rights

A register for every village is to be maintained as a record of rights of all persons cultivating or otherwise occupying land in the village It will also contain particulars about the tenure and sub-tenure holders including the due rent payable by them This register, called the annual register would be got revised annually or at longer intervals by the Deputy Commissioner recording in it all changes and transactions affecting the rights or interests in the land No changes or transactions in the land can be carried out without the order of the Deputy Commissioner, Revenue Assistant or the Tahsildar or any other competent court

Any person becoming a *bhumidar* or *asami* on obtaining possession of any land by succession or by transfer (other than a lease permitted under the Delhi Land Reforms Act, 1954) is to report immediately to the Tahsildar who shall make inquiries and

ask the *patwari* of the *halka* to record the succession or transfer in the annual register in undisputed cases A person failing to report within three months of such transfers is liable to a fine not exceeding five times the fee payable by him All disputes about the entries in the annual register are to be decided by the Tahsildar after holding an inquiry The disputed entries based on the question that any particular area of land is of public utility, however, are to be decided by the Chief Commissioner The aggrieved party may seek redress in any civil or revenue court having jurisdiction All the entries in the annual register are presumed to be true until the contrary is proved

Land Reform Measures After Independence

The post-independence land reforms in Delhi have been effected under the following enactment

(i) The Delhi Land Reforms Act, 1954 (as amended),

(ii) the East Punjab Holdings (Consolidation and Prevention of Fragmentation) Act, 1948, as adopted; and

(iii) the Delhi Land Holdings (Ceiling) Act, 1960

(i) Delhi Land Reforms Act, 1954

Prior to the enactments of the Delhi Land Reforms Act, 1954, land reforms in Delhi were being governed by the agrarian laws of Punjab and Uttar Pradesh The villages lying east of Yamuna were governed by the Agra Tenancy Act, 1901, while the remaining villages on west of the Yamuna were governed by the Punjab Tenancy Act, 1887, as modified in 1939 The land revenue was also governed by the U P Land Revenue Act, 1901, and the Punjab Land Revenue Act, 1887 * The Delhi Land Reforms Act, 1954, unifies the land reforms laws of the State It provides for the modification (not abolition of the *zamindari* system so as to create a uniform body of peasant proprietors without intermediaries and unification of the Punjab and Agra systems of tenancy laws in force The Act also provides for the creation of co-operative farms and Gaon Panchayats for administration of village lands and revenues It repeals the Punjab Tenancy Act, 1887 (as modified in 1939) the Agra Tenancy Act, 1901, the Punjab Tenancy (Security of Tenure) Act 1950, the Punjab Land Revenue Act, 1887, and the U P Land Revenue Act, 1901 The Act extends

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*There are 50 villages to which the Punjab & U P Laws still apply

to the whole territory except the areas which are included in municipality or cantonment, under the provisions of the Punjab Municipal Act 1911 and the Cantonments Act 1924, or are estates owned by the Central Government or any local authority, as also acquired under the Land Acquisition Act or held for a public utility purpose and declared as such by the Chief Commissioner and the land defined as evacuee property under the Evacuee Property Act, 1950, with the execption of evacuee lands held by tenants under lease or agreements entered into before August, 15, 1947, and evacuee's share in lands of common utility which would vest in the Gaon Sabha

Category Of Tenure Holders

The Act has recognised only two categories of tenure-holders *viz*, *bhumidars* and *asamis*, thus doing away with several intermediary interests between the Government and the actual tiller of the land

The rights of *bhumidars* are permanent, heritable and transferable On death his interests devolve in accordance with the prescribed order of succession but not according to personal law His rights of transfer is subject to the limits prescribed under the ceiling law Small *bhumidars* who hold an area of less than eight standard acres and disabled persons are permitted to lease their lands for a period not less than five years

Tenants holding under private persons or institutions are called *asamis* They are either tenants of pasture lands or lands covered by water and used for casual cultivation viz, growing *singhara* etc Lessees of lands held by Gaon Sabha are also called *asamis* An *asami* has heritable but not permanent or transferable rights in his holding He is liable to ejectment on a suit of the Gaon Sabha or the land-holder

The *bhumidars* and *asamis* will have exclusive use of the lands in their possession except for industrial use, where government permission will be necessary Both of them cannot let out lands except under certain circumstances i e disabled persons like minors lunatics, etc Exchange of land, by the *bhumidar* with the land of another *bhumidar* is permitted *Bhumidars* have to pay land revenue, whereas *asamis* have to pay rent to the *bhumidars* A *bhumidar* is generally not liable to ejectment but an *asami* is liable to be ejected for non-payment of rent etc

The rent paid by an *asami* to the *bhumidar*, generally is not to exceed one-fifth of the produce or its value in cash or four times the land revenue whichever is less Further, rent is not to be varied Provision is made for commutation of produce rent into cash rent Rent is payable in two equal instalments For the arrears of rent, interest of 6¼% is payable by an *asami* to the *bhumidar*

Admission To Bhumidari Rights

The *bhumidari* rights are either admitted or acquired on payment of compensation in multiples of land revenue payable to a proprietor or a land-holder The following persons are declared *bhumidars* on the commencement of the Act ·

(i) A proprietor holding *sir* or *khudkasht* under self-cultivation,

(ii) a proprietor's grove-holder,

(iii) an occupancy tenant under Section 5 of the Punjab Tenancy Act, 1887, paying rent at revenue rates, or

(iv) a person holding land under a *patta dawami* (perpetual lease) with rights of transfer by sale

The following categories of persons are recognised as *asamis*

(i) a non-occupancy tenant of a proprietor's grove,

(ii) sub-tenant of tenant's grove,

(iii) a non-occupancy tenant of pasture land or of land covered for growing *singhara* and other produce of land, etc ,

(iv) a lessee of disabled person or defence personnel under section 36,

(v) a person admitted as a lessee of land by the Gaon Sabha,

(vi) Every person who acquired rights of an *asami* under the provisions of the Act, and

(vii) every person who is a tenant of *sir* or a sub-tenant of an occupancy tenant under section-5 of the Punjab Tenancy Act, 1887, or of a *pattadar dawami* or *istamrari*

(perpetual lease) with right of transfer by sale, who belongs to the category of disabled persons or defence personnel

In the case of tenants with rights of transfer, compensation payable to a proprietor will be four times the amount of land revenue Section 13 specifies eight categories of tenants, who are declared as *bhumidars* Every such person other than a sub-tenant deemed to be a non-occupancy tenant under section 10 or 12 has to pay a proprietor compensation of a sum equal to 20 times the amount of land revenue The compensation payable by a sub-tenant declared as *bhumidar* is also 20 times the land revenue But out of this amount a sum equal to four times the land revenue is to be paid to a proprietor and the remainder (16 times) to his land-holder The tenants or sub-tenants declared as *bhumidars* under Section 13 may pay compensation either in lump sum or in ten annual equal instalments together with the prescribed rate of interest

Broadly speaking, the analysis of the compensation provisions reveals the position as under

Section	Bhumidars	Quantum of compensation payable		Compensation payable to
11(3)	Occupancy tenants	4 times land revenue		Proprietor
14(2) (b)	(i) Tenants declared as *bhumidars* under Sec 13 (1) (b), (c) and (h)	8 times	,,	Do
	(ii) Under Sec 13(1)(a),(d), (f) and (g)	16 times 4 times	,,	Proprietor land holder
14(3) (b)	Sub-tenants	4 times 16 times	,, ,,	Proprietor landholder

The remarkable feature of the Land Reforms Act is that all tenants and sub-tenants with or without right of occupancy (except tenants of disabled persons) have been declared *bhumidars* and brought into direct relationship with the State Secondly, the landlords are not given any right of resumption for personal cultivation and the landlords are declared *bhumidars* in respect of lands, which were in their personal cultivation.

Gaon Sabha And Gaon Panchayat

The law provides for dividing the entire territory into Gaon Sabha areas, each comprising one or more contiguous revenue villages Gaon Sabha areas should be such as are covered by the Delhi Panchayat Raj Act, 1954.

All persons who are entitled to vote shall be members of the Gaon Sabha Each Gaon Sabha shall have Gaon Panchayat as an executive body

On the commencement of the Act, all lands whether cultivated or otherwise not included in any holding or grove, all trees, public wells, fisheries, *hats, melas,* bazars, tanks, ponds, water channels, pathways and *abadi* sites, forests, etc, situated in the Gaon Sabha area shall vest in the Gaon Sabha Gaon Sabha shall be responsible for superintendence, management and control of land

Cooperative Farms

The law provides for the formation of cooperative farms If any ten or more persons of the Gaon Sabha holding among them *bhumidari* rights in 30 standard acres* as minimum in the area of a Gaon Sabha apply to the Registrar, Cooperative Societies, for registration After inquiry, the Registrar may register the society under the Bombay Cooperative Societies Act, 1925, as extended to Delhi Thereupon, all lands in the Gaon Sabha, whether as *bhumidar* or *asami* shall be deemed to have been transferred to and held by the cooperative farm

Provision is also made for formation of cooperative farms of uneconomic holdings in the Gaon Sabha area At least two-thirds of the total number of persons holding among them not less than two-thirds of the area of the economic holdings may jointly apply to the Deputy Commissioner for establishing a cooperative farm After hearing objections, if any, the Deputy Commissioner may order that a cooperative farm of all lands in the uneconomic holdings in the Gaon Sabha area may be established The Chief Commissioner shall be the final appellate authority against the order of the Deputy Commissioner Thereafter, the Registrar, Cooperative Societies, shall register the cooperative farm to which lands shall be deemed to have been transferred

*A standard acre means a measure of area convertible into ordinary acres of any class of land according to the prescribed scale with reference ot the quantity of yield and quantity of soil vide section 3(20)

The ownership of the lands contributed to the farm shall however continue in the *bhumidars*

The cooperative farm will be liable to payment of land revenue, cesses local rates and rent payable for the lands

Such farms will be granted concessions and facilities in the shape of reduction of land revenue exemption from tax, free technical advice, priority in irrigation and consolidation of holdings etc

Implementation Of Land Reforms

The Land Reforms Act came into force on July, 1954 Out of 358 villages of the territory then it affected 307 villages because the remaining 51 villages did not fall within the purview of the Act on account of their being within the limits of the municipal area Immediately on enforcement, the Act could not be implemented on account of the stay orders obtained by the land-owners from the Punjab High Court The act was therefore amended in 1956 to exclude areas included in the scheme of the Improvement Trust and to remove other minor inconsistencies It provided for payment of compensation for rights in waste lands which vested in Gaon Sabhas and which were not assessed to land revenue It further provided for determination of the crops grown on scattered holdings, which had been consolidated into new *killas* and where old boundary marks had been obliterated for the purpose of appraisal of the value of crops grown in the preceding five years

Lastly it provided for exclusion of the areas controlled, notified, held, occupied or owned by the Delhi Improvement Trust from the purview of the Act The amendment was enforced on January 8 1957

In 1959 the Act was further amended to remove some difficulties in the working of the Act and to include within its purview the Delhi Improvement Trust areas which were excluded by an amendment in 1956

In the course of implementation of the Act, certain deficiencies in the law came to notice Under Section 154, the common lands in the rural areas were vested in the Gaon Sabhas The Gaon Sabhas are responsible for managing and controlling

such lands and to take steps for removal of encroachments on those lands. Under the Act, they are also charged with the responsibility of securing ejectments of persons, who acquire lands by transfer in contravention of the Act or who divert agricultural lands to non-agricultural purposes. As stated in the Financial memorandum attached to the Amendment Bill (1965), about 2,843 cases of illegal transfers and 5,271 cases of encroachments on Gaon Sabha lands came to the notice of Government. They created a large volume of litigation. The Bill therefore provided additional powers for the revenue authorities to supplement the efforts of the Gaon Sabhas in removing encroachments in Gaon Sabha lands and ejecting encroachers.

In a number of cases, the Gaon Sabha suffered loss on account of admission by the Pradhan of incorrect claims made by unauthorised occupants of Gaon Sabha lands in suits brought under section 36 of the Delhi Panchayat Raj Act, 1954. Provision was therefore made to retrieve such properties and prevent such loss in future. New section (161-B) empowered Government to apply to the court to set aside decree or order within 12 months of the passing of the Bill. Further, two safeguards were provided (Section 161-A) *viz.*, (i) in suits under section 36 of the Delhi Panchayat Raj Act, 1954, Government should be a party and (ii) the admission made by the Pradhan should be admitted only when authorised by the Director of Panchayats.

After commencement of the Delhi Municipal Corporation Act, 1957, a number of villages which were under the jurisdiction of the Gaon Sabha were urbanised and the Delhi Panchayat Raj Act, 1954, ceased to apply to these areas. But the Gaon Sabha bodies being corporate bodies continued to exist, even though they had no panchayat functions in those areas. In the law, there was no provision for winding up these Gaon Sabhas in the urbanised areas. However, as an interim measure the management of the proprietors was entrusted to the Deputy Commissioner. Sections 150 and 154 were amended to provide for winding up the Gaon Sabhas in areas which were urbanised. A Gaon Sabha left with too small area after urbanisation was to be merged in the adjoining Gaon Sabha. Retrospective effect was given to the urbanisation effected under the Delhi Municipal Corporation Act, 1957. All Gaon Sabha lands in the urban areas were vested in the Government with the result that they went out of the purview of the Delhi Land Reforms Act, 1954 (vide section 1(2)(b). But some lands continued with the *asamis* of Gaon Sabhas. Section 154 was, therefore, amended to protect the interests of such *asamis*.

Under the Act, the *bhumidari* (ownership) rights have been vested in 75,000 tillers including 2,444 Harijans. The work of giving such rights was completed by 1960. In 307 villages effected by the Act, common land, waste land, paths and streets measuring about, 63,086 acres were handed over to the Gaon Sabhas and Government paid compensation to the landowners to the tune of Rs. 2.33 lakhs. The work of granting *bhumidari* rights under the law is over.

(ii) The East Punjab Holding (Consolidation And Prevention Of Fragmentation) Act, 1948.

The programme* of the consolidation of holdings was first undertaken in 1929 under the Cooperative Societies Act of 1912 and was continued up to 1949. It was executed by the Cooperative Department of the State. The Act did not provide for compulsory consolidation of the holdings nor was there any provision for concessions or privileges to landowners, who agreed to consolidate their holdings. As a result, between 1929 and 1949, not much work was done and only 49,795 acres of land owned by 8,086 cultivators lying in 55 villages were consolidated. In 1949, when the new Revenue Department was formed, the consolidation work was transferred from the Cooperative Department to the Revenue Department. At the same time, the Punjab Consolidation of Holdings Act 1936, was extended to Delhi and further consolidation work was resumed under this Act. However, under the Act, consolidation proceedings could be taken up only if two-thirds of the landowners possessing three-fourths of the cultivated area in a village applied for or agreed to consolidation. In practice, it was found extremely difficult to get the necessary consent of the landowners especially in faction-ridden villages, with the result that no much headway could be made. In order to overcome this difficulty, the East Punjab Holdings (Consolidation and Prevention of Fragmentation) Act, 1948 was adopted by the Territory with effect from December, 1948, and the Rules thereunder were enforced in 1949. The Act is modelled on the Bombay Act and provides for compulsory consolidation of agricultural holdings and for prevention of fragmentation of holdings.

**Agricultural Legislation in India, Vol II-Consolidation of Holdings* (1957)P, p. xix

Fragments

Under the Act, provision is made for determination of a standard area as a minimum area which can be cultivated profitably as a separate plot Such standard areas will be notified for each class of land Any plot of less than the standard area is deemed a fragment and entered as such in the record of rights.

Transfer of fragments is prohibited unless it is merged in the contiguous survey number or a recognised sub-division thereof

The act also prohibits the transfer or partition of a land so as to create a fragment and makes any transfer or partition of land in contravention as void

The fragment may, however, be sold to an owner of a contiguous survey number or a sub-division thereof on payment of the market price determined by the Deputy Commissioner. In the case of refusal, he may transfer the fragment to the Government on payment of the price fixed In that case, it will vest in the State, free from all encumberances The State Government or the local authority is prohibited from acquiring or selling any land so as to leave a fragment

Consolidation Of Holdings Under Delhi Land Reforms Act, 1954

The Delhi Land Reforms Act. 1954, also prohibits the partition of a holding of an eight standard acres

The law provides for compulsory consolidation of holdings For this purpose, Government may, of its own accord or on application, declare its intention to make scheme for consolidation of holdings and appoint a Consolidation Officer The scheme shall provide for the payment of compensation to any owner who is allotted a holding of less market value than that of his original holding and recovery as compensation from an owner who is allotted a holding of higher value It may also provide for distribution of land between occupancy tenants and his landlord. It may further provide for amalgamation of public roads, lanes, streets, etc., after hearing objections, if any. Where the rights of any individuals are affected, he is liable for compensation. But for extinction or diminution of any right of public highway over the road, street, path, etc., no compensation is payable In the scheme, lands reserved for common purposes may be assigned or disassigned.

The draft scheme shall be published and after consideration of objections, if any, the Consolidation Officer shall submit the scheme to the Settlement Officer (Consolidation) for approval If no objections are received, the scheme will be confirmed by the Settlement Officer (Consolidation) and then published

Thereafter, the Consolidation Officer shall repartition the estate or estates according to the schemes of consolidation and demarcate the boundaries after which a new record of rights shall be prepared

The scheme will be deemed to have to come into force after the owners and tenants enter into possession of the allotted holdings

The consolidation scheme shall not affect the rights of land-owners and tenants, as they had in their original holdings The cost of consolidation shall be recovered from the beneficiaries

Implementation

Out of 358 villages, lands (49795 acres) in 55 villages were consolidated by the Cooperative Department When that Department was succeeded in 1949 by the Revenue Department, 76 of the remaining villages were adjudged unfit for consolidation because of their being urban, riverain or hilly Hence only 227 villages remained for consolidation Twenty villages were consolidated before the commencement of the First Five Year Plan During the First Five Year Plan, the consolidation work was started in the remaining 207 villages But the consolidation operations were held in abeyance in July, 1954, in all the villages in order to enable tenants to acquire *bhumidari* rights under the Delhi Land Reforms Act, 1954

Before the commencement of the Delhi Land Reforms Act, the consolidation proceedings were finalised in 135 villages only So the consolidation schemes were to be undertaken in 72 villages only In view of the amendment Act of 1956, it was considered advisable to resume consolidation work after deciding *bhumidari* rights

During 1959-60 * the consolidation operations were to be resumed but this could not be done due to the uncertainty about the villages, which would come within the urbanizable limits

* *Annual Report of Delhi Administration for* 1959-60

under the Delhi Master Plan The consolidation work was, therefore, held in abeyance till the finalisation of the Master Plan of Delhi.

Being covered by the land acquisition schemes and the Master Plan, another 46 villages were declared unfit for this consolidation Thus, in all, 122 villages were declared unfit for this programme Till the year 1963-64 consolidation work was completed in 210 villages As a result the work remained to be done in only 26 villages The work was resumed during the year 1961-62, but due to the non-cooperation of the tenure-holders, the work had to be stopped, after completing roaster operations The scheme was suspended from January 1, 1962

In 1963, the work of consolidation was resumed in four villages at the request of the tenure-holders, but had to be abondened due to appreciation of land values round about Delhi and the strong opposition of the land-owners

The position in 1968-69 was that 20 villages (about 32,000 acres) remained to be consolidated Besides implementation of the programme in these 20 village, the consolidation was to be re-done in 55 villages consolidated by the Cooperative Department, as it was done without *killabandi*

The work of reconsolidation in these villages was taken up in 1969-70 *

(iii) The Delhi Land Holding (Ceiling) Act, 1960

In order to provide for the imposition of ceiling on land holdings the Delhi Land Holdings (Ceiling) Act, 1960, was enacted and brought into force on April 5, 1962 The rules were framed thereunder in 1962

The Act extends to the entire Union Territory, except a municipal or cantonment area areas owned by a central or local authority or held for a public utility and declared as such by the Chief Commissioner or acquired under the Land Acquisition Act

Level Of Ceiling

The Act provides for imposition of ceiling on existing holdings and future acquisition at 30 standard acres A standard acre varies from 4/5th of an acre of irrigated land to two acres

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*Anual Report of Delhi Administration, 1969-70.

of *barani* land Allowance is, however, made for the size of the family*, subject to an outside limit of 60 standard acres

Transfers

Section 7 of the Act disregards all the transfers made after 10th February, 1959 (when the Government intention to bring the legislation was announced in Parliament) in computing the surplus area However, in the case of transfers made by a registered deed for valuable consideration between February, 10, 1959 and November 25, 1959 (the date of introduction of the Bill), the Act provides that surplus land shall be taken from the transferor only to the extent available with him and leaving with him (transferor) a minimum area of one economic holding (8 standard acres) but no land shall be taken from the transferee

With regard to other transfers made after February 10, 1959, the surplus lands shall be taken both from the transferor and the transferee The surplus area is to be selected out of the lands held by the transferor and the transferee in the same proportion as the land held by the transferor bears to the land transferred Where no land is held by the transferor, the excess shall be taken from the transferee If there are more transferees than one, the surplus land shall be selected out of the land held by each of the transferees in the same proportion as the area of the land transferred to all transferees

Where the surplus land is selected out of the land transferred, the transfer of such land shall be void and the consideration money paid by the transferee for the land shall be a charge on the compensation payable for the land

Compensation

Where any excess land of a *bhumidar* vests in Government the Government shall pay compensation equal to 20 times the net income from such land Net income is one-fifth of the gross average produce The compensation shall be payable in a lump sum or in instalments or in bonds redeemable over a period of ten years

The Chief Commissioner is empowered to allot any excess land vesting in Government to such persons and on such terms as he thinks fit

*Family in relation to a person means the wife or husband as the case may be, and the dependent children and grand children of such person

Exemptions

The Chief Commissioner is empowered to exempt the following categories of lands from the purview of the legislation on application made to him within three months from the commencement of the law

(a) (i) compact block of land used as an orchard farm before February 10, 1959

(ii) efficiently managed farm which consists of a compact block on which heavy investment or permanent structural improvements have been made and whose break-up is in the opinion of the Chief Commissioner likely to lead to a fall in production Where a person holds the compact block of land together with any other land, he shall be permitted to elect to retain either the compact block of land, notwithstanding the fact that it exceeds the ceiling limit or the other land not exceeding the ceiling limit,

(b) specialised farm engaged in cattle-breeding, dairying, and wool raising,

(c) land held by a body notified by the Chief Commissioner under Section 33 of the Land Reforms Act, 1954, and

(d) land held by a cooperative society subject to the condition that where a member of the society holds a share in such land, his share shall be taken into account in determining the ceiling limit

Implementation

In implementation of the law, an area of about 404 acres only has been declared surplus But Government could not take possession of these surplus lands, as the orders did not specify the *khasra* number to be vested in Government In view of the defective orders, Administration could not publish the notification about the surplus lands in the official gazette

Besides this major lacuna, certain defects about the provisions regarding transfers have come to light during implementation In order to rectify them, amendments to the law are under consideration of the Administration

Land Records

The main land records maintained are two namely, (1) *khatauni or jamabandi* and (2) *khasra*. In 21 partly urban and partly rural villages and 50 urban villages on the other side of the Yamuna, the land records are maintained according to the Punjab Land Revenue Act.

In the remaining villages they are maintained according to the Delhi Land Reforms Act, 1954, and the Delhi Land Revenue Act, 1954.

After 1947-48, the annual registers mentioned above were not prepared, out of 358 villages, these land records are now prepared in 307 rural villages and in the remaining urban villages, they are under preparation. There is need for ensuring uniformity in maintenance of the records.

The records maintained on the Punjab pattern show the names of tenants and sub-tenants and the rents payable by them. In the U.P. region of the Territory, the records show also the period of possession by the tenants.

In order to meet the administrative needs arising out of the implementation of the land reforms measures, the Delhi Land Revenue Act, 1954, (which was enforced in 1963) contains detailed provisions for maintenance of land records. They have been already dealt with under "Land Revenue Legislation".

Pre-Independence Position

Delhi was the head-quarters of the district. The executive staff consisted of one Deputy Commissioner and eight Assistant and Extra Assistant Commissioners of whom one was a Treasury Officer and a Revenue Assistant.

There were three tahsils at Delhi, Sonepat and Ballabgarh in charge of Tahsildars and Naib-Tahsildars. The subordinate staff consisted of office Kanungos, Patwaris and Naib Patwaris.

For collection of land revenue, the *zaildari* system was introduced in 1880. Originally, the *zaildars* received as *inams* one per cent of the land revenue of their *zails*. But with subsequent reduction of *zails* from 44 to 27, the *inams* were graded as below

Grade	No of *zaildars*	*Inam* Rs.
1st	7	350
2nd . . .	14	300
3rd	6	250

In the constitution of *zails*, care was taken to give effect to local caste influence and leading men in the villages, because the *zaildars* were selected from the leading castes of Jats, Brahmins, Gujars, Ahirs, etc In reduction of the number of *zails*, administrative convenience was the main cosideration For this purpose, the tahsils were divided into thanas the thanas into *zails*. Each thana covered two to four *zails*

Lambardars were appointed about three per village and were allotted to sub-divisions of villages called *thoks, thulas* or *pattis* A rough standard of Rs 1000 of revenue of land and canal per *lambardar* was fixed A *lambardar* received an average *pachotra* (headman's dues) of about Rs 25 in 1908-10

Ala lambardars or chief headmen were appointed in 1878-79 in villages where there were three or more *lambardars* They received one per cent of the land revenue as an extra *inam* Their number was being gradually reduced with a view to their abolition

As a compensation for the reduction in the number of *zaildars* and *ala lambardars*, an establishment of 32 *inamdars* with an *inam* of Rs 80 each was created, each caste and tahsil having been given its due share in appointments These *inamdars* served as candidates (substitutes) for *zaildars*, when they fell sick or were otherwise employed

Post Independence Position

The Delhi Land Revenue Act, 1954, provides for appointment of officers for the revenue administration The control of all judicial and non-judicial matters connected with land revenue and settlement is vested in the Chief Commissioner He is authorised to appoint an Additional Collector, who shall exercise powers and functions of the Deputy Commissioner He is also empowered to appoint Revenue Assistants or Assistant Collectors, Tahsildars and Naib Tahsildars All the Revenue Officers shall be subordinate to the Deputy Commissioner

The Chief Commissioner is empowered to create a new tahsil or alter the limits of the existing tahsil With the previous sanction of the Chief Commissioner, the Deputy Commissioner is empowered to arrange the villages in the *Patwari's halkas*

The Deputy Commissioner is empowered to appoint one *Patwari* to each halka Over the *Patwaris, Kanungos* may be appointed for proper supervision and maintenance of the annual registers (record of rights) and other duties specified by the Chief Commissioner

Delhi consists of one district with headquarters at Delhi During the decade 1961-71 there has been a jurisdictional change within the territory of Delhi Before December 1, 1967, it was divided into one tahsil of Delhi and a sub-tahsil of Mehrauli It has now two full-fledged tahsils—one at Delhi and the other at Mehrauli—under separate Tahsildars It has 258 villages which are grouped into *halkas*

The Delhi tahsil has three circles, namely, Delhi, Narela and Najafgarh covering 156 villages, whereas the Mehrauli tahsil has two circles, Mehrauli and Palam covering 102 villages

The district is placed in charge of a Deputy Commissioner In revenue matters, he is assisted by the Additional District Magistrate (Revenue) Under the Additional District Magistrate, there are four officers in the Deputy Collector's grade viz, Revenue Assistant, Officer on Special Duty (Land Reforms), District Collection Officer and Land Management Officer

The Revenue Assistant is charged with the duty of supervising the work of the Tahsildars, Naib Tahsildars, Kanungos and *Patwaris* in regard to maintenance of land records grant of *bhumidari* rights, implementation of the consolidation programme and the ceiling legislation, etc

The Officer on Special Duty (Land Reforms) is responsible for overall implementation of the Delhi Land Reforms Act

The District Collection Officer is mainly responsible for collection of land revenue and other government dues. In the collection work, he is assisted by the *Amins* (bailiffs), who form part of the permanent establishment at the village level (there are no *zaildars* now) The *Patwaris* are not concerned with collection or recovery work, but they are solely responsible for maintenance of the village land records

Under the Land Reforms Act, 1954, certain lands are vested in Gaon Sabhas on payment of compensation to land owners by Government In view of the inefficient working of the Gaon Sabhas, 57 Gaon Sabhas in the Territory have been superseded and the lands held by the Gaon Sabhas are managed by the Deputy Commissioner through the Land Management Officer.

Collection Of Land Revenue

The following table gives the amount of land revenue realized from 1966-67 to 1972-73 ·

Year	Amount collected (Rs in lakhs)
1966-67	11 10
1967-68	8 35
1968-69	23 80
1969-70	13·72
1970-71	18·48
1971-72	24·28
1972-73 (R.E)	28 98

Administration Of Taxes Other Than Land Revenue

Besides land revenue, the other main sources of income are the local sales tax, excise, road tax and fees and the entertainment tax etc While proceeds from the latter two taxes are assigned to the three local bodies—Delhi Municipal Corporation, N D M C, and the Delhi Cantonment—all other revenue receipts go to the Consolidated Fund of India and to meet its financial requirements Delhi gets its budget allocations from the same fund

The Local Sales Tax

Sales tax was imposed in Delhi in 1951, in order to raise additional revenue for meeting the increasing liabilities of defence and development Most other States levied sales tax much earlier Sales tax was levied by extending the Bengal Finance (Sales Tax)

Act, 1941, to Delhi Since then a number of amendements have been made in the Act The salient features of the Act are as under

(a) The pattern of levy of sales tax is single point levy This point is generally the point of sale to the consumers Sales tax is however, leviable in respect of six items at the point of sale by an importer/manufacturer These items are vegetable *ghee* coal, motor spirit, Aviation spirit and high speed diesel oil, medicines, drugs and pharmaceutical preparations, cement and all kinds of tyres and tubes, including those of motor vehicles, motor cycles, motor scooters, motoretted cycles and animal driven vehicles

(b) The general rate of tax in Delhi is 5% as against 6% in Haryana and Punjab In many other States, it is even higher The rate of tax on goods which are mainly used by the affluent section of the community, such as motor vehicles, refrigerators, air conditioning plants photographic cameras, motor spirit pile carpets, liquor etc is higher than the general rate of tax of 5% This rages from 7% to 10% In respect of these goods also the rate of tax in most of other States is higher In some cases it is substantially higher Certain goods have been exempted from Sales Tax as shown in Appendix I

(c) Certain goods have been declared by Section 14 of the Central Sales Tax Act 1956 to be goods of special importance The rate of tax on these goods under the Local Sales Tax law of any State cannot exceed 3% in view of the restrictions contained in Section 15 of the Central Sales Act These goods include cotton, iron and steel, jute oil seeds, etc The rate of tax on these goods under the Local Sales Tax law in most States is 3%, but in Delhi it is 2%

The rates of tax in Delhi have been kept lower than in the adjoining States to protect its trade which is mainly distributive in character Most of the goods sold are imported from other States against payment of tax and after defraying expenses on account of transportation, octroi duty etc, result in higher cost price to the dealers

The taxable quantum in the case of importers/manufacturers is Rs 10,000, for others it is Rs 30 000 The liability of a dealer arises, under the Act, two months after the date his sales first

exceed the taxable quantum within a year Dealers registered under the Central Sales Tax Act, however, are also, liable to pay tax under the Local Act, regardless of their turnover

The Act empowers the Lt Governor to reduce the rate of tax on any goods, if it is expedient in the interest of the public to do so

Some of the items on which the rate of tax has been reduced from five per cent are listed below·

S No	Description of goods	Normal rate	Reduced rate
1	Bullion and specie	5%	½%
2	Ready made garments including hosiery garments other than furcoats, costing less than Rs 30 per piece	5%	1%
3	Ornaments (Silver) . . .	5%	1%
4	Ornaments (Gold) . .	5%	2%
5	Ghee	5%	3%
6	Durries	5%	4%
7	White printing paper, cream laid paper and news print	5%	4%
8	*Halwai* preparations sold by *Halwais* .	5%	2%

A Chart showing the rates of tax on various items is given at Appendix II

For the purposes of administering the Sales Tax laws, the Union Territory of Delhi has been divided into 40 wards Each ward is under the charge of the Sales Tax Officer The statutory functions under the Act in respect of dealers falling under various wards are performed by the Sales Tax Officer and the Assistant Sales Tax Officer of the ward concerned These functions include assessment of tax, registration of dealers, amendments of registration certificates, grant of refund etc Appeals against assessment orders lie to the Assistant Commissioners If a dealer feels aggrieved by an order passed by the Assistant Commissioner he is entitled to file a revision petition with the Commissioner of Sales Tax If he is still aggrieved, he can file a second revision petition with the Lt Governor The functions of the Lt Governor have been delegated to the Financial Commissioner A reference can be made to the High Court for deciding any question of law arising out of any order passed by the second revising authority

The meteoric rise in population and trade activity in Delhi and consequent increase in the number of registered dealers will be evident from the following Table

Year	Number of dealers registered under the Local Act	Revenue from Local Act in financial year (in crores)
1959-60	15,842	2 79
1960-61	17,276	3·77
1961-62	16,616	4 43
1962-63	17,616	4 90
1963-64	18,737	6 27
1964-65	20,136	7 83
1965-66	21,940	8 82
1966-67	24,230	10 92
1967-68	27,427	12·38
1968-69	31,280	15 27
1969-70	33,735	15 74
1970-71	38,458	17 67

Administration And Organisation

Subject to the general control and superintendence of the Lt Governor, the Commissioner Sales Tax controls all officers appointed to perform statutory and non-statutory functions The Commissioner is assisted by a Deputy Commissioner, seven Assistant Commissioners, Sales Tax Officers, Assistant Sales Tax Officers, one Administrative Officer and two Superintendents besides junior staff

The Deputy Commissioner has been delegated some of the powers of Commissioner These include disposal of revision petitions against appellate orders, passed by the Asstt Commissioners He also controls the working of the Internal Audit Cell. Collection Branch and deals with the A G C R in respect of audit objections raised by the audit party. He also conducts inspections of wards to see that the records in the wards are maintained in a proper and systematic manner and there is prompt and correct disposal of all applications etc. Inspection of some of the wards is also done by the Assistant Commissioners, besides doing the

appellate work The Assistant Commissioners have also been delegated the powers of revision by the Commissioner in respect of orders, other than orders of assessment passed by the Sales Tax Officers

In addition to 40 wards, there are several special branches, the functions of which are mentioned against each

(i) *Recovery Branch*—One of the Asstt. Commissioners has been conferred the powers of a Collector for recovering arrears of tax.

(ii) *Special Investigation Branch*—This branch deals with the detection of evasion of tax and to gather all relevant information which will help in detection and curbing of evasion It is under the charge of an Assistant Commissioner, who also deals with complaints of corruptions etc., against employees of the department This branch also conducts surveys of various classes of dealers to detect cases of evasion of tax

(iii) *Internal Audit Cell*—The functions of the Cell are scrutiny assessment and other statutory orders passed by the assessing authorities to ensure that the interests of revenue are adequately protected.

(iv) *External Audit*—The external audit is conducted by the A G C R

(v) *Advisory Section*—This branch is meant for tendering advice to dealers and to collect statistical data

Some of the principal revenue yielding commodities are automobiles and their spare parts, machinery, petroleum products, electrical goods, general merchandise etc

(vi) *Judicial Branch*—For dealing with cases of appeal, revisions, cases pending in the High Court etc

(vii) *Verification Cell*—To conduct enquiries from purchasing dealers to ensure that the transactions are genuine and the purchasig dealers is entitled under the law to make the purchase free of tax on the strength of his registration certificate

(viii) *Collection Branch*—In most cases tax and other amount payable by dealers under the Act is paid in the form of cheques This branch gets the cheques cleared and maintains a ward-wise and consolidated record of collections under various heads. Preliminary action in cases where cheques are dishonoured is also taken in this branch.

Central Record Room

The records of individual dealers are periodically scrutinised and papers in respect of which no action is pending are consigned to the Central Record Room These papers are maintained in the Central Record Room for a specified period, after they are destroyed

Besides the sections mentioned above, the department has a separate establishment section and an accounts section

Road Tax And Fee

Road Tax and the fees are collected under the Delhi Motor Vehicles Taxation Act, 1962 and the Indian Motor Vehicles Act, 1939, respectively

The entire proceeds of road tax after deduction of the establishment charges are distributed amongst the three local bodies, Municipal Corporation of Delhi, New Delhi Municipal Committee of Delhi Cantonment Board on the basis of the motorable area of the roads falling under each body's jurisdiction

The entire amount of fees realised is credited to the Consolidated Fund of India The revenue figures from years 1960-61 to 1971-72 are given as under

Year	Tax	Fee
1960-61	31,36,902	14,63,621
1961-62	36,00,753	14,63,491
1962-63	40,89,789	18,30,612
1963-64	87,43,358	19,72,760
1964-65	95,07,086	20,88,031
1965-66	104,69,254	20,98,652
1966-67	1,11,75,686	24,65,615
1967-68	1,26,48,216	26,20,268
1968-69	1,36,25,304	28,71,582
1969-70	1,92,46,355	36,86,303
1970-71	2,07,59,309	35,86,921
1971-72	2,31,53,564	37,93,318

Source,—*Directorate* of *Transport* (Delhi)

Stamp Department

Being the head of the Stamp Department, the Chief Controlling Revenue Authority, supervises the work of the Collector of Stamps who acts under the provisions of the Indian Stamp Act, 1899 The stamp duty chargeable under the Indian Stamp Act and Schedule 1-A thereto as applicable to Delhi and the court fee leviable under Schedules attached to Court Fee Act, 1870, is collected under the Head-XIV-Stamps It is realised in the form of stamp papers or adhesive stamps provided in the rules made under these acts A stamp branch in the charge of an inspector (headquarters) functions under the control of Collector of Stamps/Chief Controlling Revenue Authority There is a batch of seven Stamp Auditors headed by a Chief Stamp Auditor who inspects and audit various courts and other public offices to find out if there are any documents deficiently stamped After the deficiencies have been established the amounts are recovered

The stamp papers and adhesive stamps etc. are supplied by the Treasury Officer, Delhi, to the various licenced stamp vendors who further sell them to the public There are fifty such stamp vendors posted at different places in Delhi who make sale of stamps up to Rs 500 in a single transaction The sale of stamps over Rs 500 in single transaction is carried out by the Treasury Officer, Delhi

The revenue collected under this head from 1959-60 to 1970-71 was as under

Year	Amount
1959-60	1,18,19,411
1960-61	1,17,66,021
1961-62	1,00,49,726
1962-63	1,15,24,486
1963-64	1,20,50,716
1964-65	1,14,38 867
1965-66	1,51,69,902
1966-67	1,64 82,684
1967-68	1,68,89,020
1968-69	2,09,66,083
1969-70	2,21,21,442
1970-71	3,00,33,000

(*Source.—Stamp Department, Delhi Administration.*)

Registration Department

The Inspector General of Registration, as head of the de ment exercises over all control over the Registrar and four Registrars in Delhi who carry out their respective duties i the Registration Act, 1908, and the rules made thereunder, respect to the registration of various documents and realis of registration fees The registration fee leviable under the dule contained in 'table of registration fee' prescribed under gistration Act, 1908, is realised at the counter in the offic the Sub-Registrars and is credited to the Treasury under the XV-Registration

The revenue derived under this head during the last t years, i e from 1959-60 to 1970-71 is given below

Year	Amount (Rupees)
1959-60	7,08,991
1960-61	8,08,614
1961-62	9,56,149
1962-63	13,06,288
1963-64	12,11,458
1964-65	11,51,258
1965-66	11,18,287
1966-67	14,29,229
1967-68	11,70,744
1968-69	10,51,139
1969-70	11,05,031
1970-71	13,49,591

(*Source —Inspector General of Registration, Delhi Administratio*

Entertainment Tax Department

The Entertainment Tax was levied for the first time in I in 1940 Levy of Entertainment Tax being a State subject, al all the States have legislated independently Since, Delhi did have a legislature of its own, excepting for a brief p

when it was grouped as a Part 'C' State, enactments of other States have from time to time been made applicable to this territory Formerly the Punjab Entertainment Duty Act, 1936 was applicable to Delhi but with effect from 1-3-50, the U P Entertainment and Betting Tax Act, 1937, has been extended Under the provisions of this enactment, the Entertainment and Betting Tax Rules have been framed and promulgated

The administration of the Act is done by the Lt Governor who has delegated certain powers to the Commissioner of Entertainment Tax At the district level, there is one Entertainment Tax Officer assisted by three Inspectors and six sub-inspectors besides a complement of clerical staff Besides the administration of the Entertainment Tax Act, this department also assists the District Magistrate in the enforcement of the Cinematograph Act, 1952 and the rules made thereunder.

The figures of collections made from the years 1959-60 to 1970-71 are as under

Year	Amount
1599-60	44,71,500
1960-61	55,03,494
1961-62	59,07,520
1962-63	64,17,341
1963-64	76,19,743
1964-65	86,05,452
1965-66	94,65,444
1966-67	1,08,09,760
1967-68	1,10,26,337
1968-69	1,65,64,590
1969-70	2,53,17,044
1970-71	2,97,10,467

(*Source —Entertainment Tax Officer, Delhi Administration*)

Central Government Taxes

Income Tax

The Income-tax Department in the Union Territory of Delhi is headed by three Commissioners of Income-tax who are designated as Commissioner of Income-tax, I, II, and Central They also

perform the functions of Commissioners of Wealth-tax, Commissioner of Gift tax and Controller of Estate Duty. They function under the Central Board of Direct Taxes which constitute the apex of the structure of direct taxes administration in the country

Commissioners of Income-tax, I and II have jurisdiction over cases *arising in the Union Territory of Delhi*, whereas the CIT Delhi (Central) has been assigned jurisdiction over cases pertaining to the charges of Commissioner of Income-tax, Delhi, I and II, Punjab, U P and Rajasthan which have been especially allotted to him by the Central Board of Direct Taxes for thorough and detailed investigation

The Commissioners control and supervise the work of the field officers and impart suitable instructions as and when required It is also their function to ensure maintenance of high standard of integrity by the officers and staff working under them

The Commissioners of Income-tax are assisted by a team of Inspecting Assistant Commissioners in the administration of various other direct taxes e g Wealth Tax, Gift Tax, Estate Duty The Inspecting Assistant Commissioners supervise, direct and inspect the work of the Income-tax officers in their respective ranges Some of the Inspecting Assistant Commissioners also act as Deputy Controllers of Estate Duty

Besides the Inspecting Assistant Commissioners, there are a number of Appellate Assistant Commissioners whose function is to hear appeals against the orders of the Income-tax officers For administrative purposes they are subordinate to the Commissioner of Income-tax, but in their judicial functions, they are independent of both CBT and the Commissioner of Income-tax

Next below in the hierarchy are the Income Tax Officers who initiate assessment proceedings, pass assessment orders, determine taxes payable and collect taxes so determined These Income-Tax Officers also perform the duties of Wealth Tax Officer, Gift Tax Officer within their respective jurisdiction as prescribed by the Commissioners of Income Tax Some of these officers work as Assistant Controllers of Estate Duty

The Income-tax Officers are assisted by Inspectors, who are required to go about in the field, survey the various localities with a view to discover new tax payers and also make out-door enquiries At times they assist the Income-tax Officers in the examination of accounts

The number of Commissioners of Income-tax, Assistant Commissioners of Income-tax and Income-tax Officers, in Delhi as on 31st March, 1967, 31st March, 1968 and 31st March, 1969 are as given below

	31-3-67	31-3-68	31-3-69
Commissioners of Income-tax	2	2	3
Assistant Commissioners of Income-tax .	23	27	35
Income-tax Officers	317*	333*	192

*These figures include 200 posts of I T O's which were borne on Delhi charge but were later allocated to the various charges of Commissioners all over India).

The revenue receipts from the following taxes in the Union Territory of Delhi during given years are as follows :—

(*Figures in lakhs of rupees*)

Year	Income-tax	Wealth-tax	Gift-tax	E Duty
1958-59	10 94	34 31		..
1959 60 .	12 99	52 93	3 78	
1960-61 .	16 28	42 21	4 08	
1961-62 . .	17 39	48 60	3 85	24
1962-63 .	22 11	70 24	4 80	21
1963-64	32 72	73 52	4 89	24
1964-65	32 04	73 20	12 37	26
1965-66 .	34 27	60 00	11 41	14
1966-67 . .	40 23	34 00	4·66	20
1967 68	47 44	24 94	4 85	20
1968-69 . .	51 13	45 40	4 19	19

(*Source —Commissioner of Income Tax, New Delhi*)

Central Excise

The administration of Central Excise is being looked after by the Assistant Collector of Central Excise, Multi Officers Division, New Delhi

The excise duty was leviable on the following 45 items in 1968-69 The names of commodities, number of factories and the revenue realised from these commodities during the years 1967 68 and 1968-69 are given below·

S No	Name of the Commodity	No of unit	Revenue	
			1967-68	1968-69
1	2	3	4	5
1	Package Tea	3	481	1,053
2	Vegetable products	2	1,20,87,300	1,38,15,878
3	Refined V N E Oils	2	825	2,02,958
4	Paints & Varnish	25	4,67,703	7,63,230
5	Caustic Soda	1	5,17,671	5,73,912
6	C T Dyes	14	8,08,464	7,62,810
7	Patent and P Medicines	5	12,92,148	15,61,[illegible]72
8	Cosmetics . .	132	2,71,520	2,11,576
9	Acids . . .	1	3,75,751	4,03,006
10	Gases	1	7,95,619	9,92,659
11	Soap .	4	2,49,906	2,59,565
12	Rubber products .	3	21,12,609	1,63,955
13	Ply wood	1	1,055	3,161
14	Cotton yarn . . .	2	57,10,088	60,61,210
15	Cotton fabrics . .	5	62,46,051	1,23,71,622
16	Woollen Yarn	5	6,05,032	5,26,897
17	Art Silk	6	64,705	21,565

1	2	3	4	5
18	Glass and Glass wares	7	3,07,349	5,68,773
19	China & Porcelainwares	16	4,99,555	4,78,901
20	Iron & steel products	5	28,121	14,330
21	I C Engines	3	5,232	753
22	Aluminium	13	39,081	2,103
23	Air conditioning & Refrigeration	11	16,04,963	29,76,549
24	Electric Motors	18	6,89,119	10,17,593
25	B S Batteries	13	92,162	97,400
26	Electric Bulbs	3	6,81 862	14,42,444
27	Electric Fans	7	4,01,736	1,14,008
28	W R Sets	238	17,79,747	15,83,393
29	Electrical wires and Cables	141	22,92,073	26,79,493
30	Motor Vehicles	11	51,844	37,252
31	Gramophone parts	6	25,156	6,286
32	Sodium Silicate	16	5,52,879	5,17,026
33	Plastic	3	13,616	30,650
34	Rayon & Synthetic yarn	6	49,312	28,417
35	Mech Lighters	3	11,116	26,393
36	Light Diesel Oil	1	62,55,186	19,06,331
37	Motor Spirit	1	1,65,69,203	2,23,04,052
38	Refined Diesel oil	1	23,55 018	62,59,673
39	Furnace Oil	1	8,79,875	12,85,049
40	Tyres & Tubes	1	21,12,609	19,91,110
41	Copper & Copper Alloys	10	2,364	3,437
42	Corrugated board	1	8,265	72,328
43	Kerosene Oil	8	12,17,321	98,29,172
44	Steel Furniture	11	23,461	2,37,116
45	Tobacco warehousing	47	3,51,312	8,26,765

(Source —Collector of Customs & Central Excise, New Delhi)

The figures of actual revenue realised during the years 1965-66 to 1968-69 are as under

Years	Revenue
1965-66	4,00,29,838
1966-67	4,74,50,829
1967-68	6,95,30,885
1968-69	9,50,74,579

(*Source*.—*Collector of Customs and Central Excise, New Delhi*)

The total expenditure incurred on the staff employed on the collection of revenue and other expenditure during the year 1968-69 was Rs 13,45,677 as against the revenue of Rs 9,50,74,579 during the Year The cost of collection comes to 1 4%

The following staff* was posted in the Central Excise, Multi Officers Division, New Delhi to look after the above work

Cadre	Sanctioned strength
Assistant Collector . . .	1
Superintendents . . .	19
Deputy Office Superintendents .	2
Inspectors	98
Sub Inspectors . .	33

Customs

The administration of Customs is being looked after by the Assistant Collector, Customs Division, New Delhi The Foreign Post Office, New Delhi is working under the Assistant Collector, Customs Division, New Delhi The following staff was posted in

**Excluding Clerical staff*

Customs Division, New Delhi and Foreign Post Office, New Delhi, to look after the Customs work in 1968-69.

Name of the Cadre	Sanctioned strength
(Gazetted)	
Assistant Collectors	2
Superintendents, Class I	3
Superintendents, Class II	9
Principal Postal Appraisers	1
Appraisers	4
(Non-Gazetted)	
Deputy Superintendent (E)	1
Inspectors	60
Sub-Inspectors	19
Lady Searchers	3
Deputy Office Superintendents	3
Head-Clerks	2
Upper Division Clerks	37
Lower Division Clerks	25
Steno-typists	5

Gross amount of Customs duty realised on the principal articles of imported merchandise during last four years from 1965-66 to 1968-69 are given below

S No	Name of the articles	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69
		(Figures in thousands)			
1	Cotton Manufacture	4	4	17	16
2	Liquor, Petroleum, Kerosene, Mineral Oil, Paper, Board & Stationery	7,821	4,007	212	61
3	Metals & other iron steel etc	50	358	551	28
4	Fruits and Vegetables	1,501	205		
	Silks and articles made thereof			8	1
5	Cutlery, Hardware implements	45	1		
6	Dyes and Colours	4	.	6	

S No	Name of the articles	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69
		(Figures in thousands)			
7	Cigarettes, Cigars and Tobaccos				..
8	Chemicals, Drugs and Medicines (including malathi & unabs)	132	120	537	306
9	Glass earthwares	3	1		
10	Motor Cars, Motor cycle, scooters, Omnibus Chasis, Vans Lorry and parts thereof	166	1,826	789	482
11	Machinery (including locomotives etc)	163	1,190	1,710	267
12	Railway plants and roller stone				
13	Cotton raw				2
14	Betal nuts				
15	All other articles	6,616	6,260	7,066	6,643

(*Source* —*Collector of Customs & Central Excise, New Delhi*)

The statement showing customs receipts in various heads during the above years is given below

S No	Description	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69
		(Figures in thousands of rupees)			
1	Import of Air Customs	15,157	13,928	10,916	7,806
2	Export of Air Customs	68	402	77	291
3	Recovery of cost estt	65			
4	Commission and Collector of tea cases, cotton cases and other cases	32	402		
5	Sale proceeds auction goods	282	333	510	381
6	Confiscation and penalities	1,081	51,932	1,780	2,359
7	Less refund and draw backs—				
	(i) Aviation spirit and other lubricating oil	899	113	1	
	(ii) Other than aviation		213	99	885
8	Misc receipts	1,099	521	340	349

(*Source* —*Collector of Central Excise, New Delhi*)

Besides, there is an International Airport at Palam The Assistant Collector (Air Customs) is Incharge of this Airport The following staff was posted at Palam Airport (1968-69).

Name of the Cadre	Sanctioned strength
Asistant Collectors (Air Customs)	2
Air Customs Inspectors	9
Air Customs Appraisers . . .	1
Air Customs Officers . . .	52
Bandobast Officers . .	9

Total receipts of revenue under various heads during the year 1967-68 and 1968-69 are as under

S No	Description	1967-68	1968-69
		Rs	Rs
1	Import Duty .	11,10,777	20,71,373(*a*)
2	Export Duty .	9,725	10,526(*b*)

(Source —Collector of Customs & Central Excise, New Delhi)

The Central Sales Tax

Tax under the Central Sales Tax Act 1956, was levied from 1-7-57 Under this Act, tax is levied in respect of sales effected by dealers in the course of inter-State trade Although, this tax has been imposed by the Central Government the power to levy the tax has been assigned by the Central Sales Tax Act to the State Governments, who do so on behalf of the Government of India The proceeds of the tax are also assigned to the State Governments and are retained by them. The proceeds attributable to Union Territories (including Delhi), however, form part of the Consolidated Fund of India

(*a*)—*Rs* 2,59,93,253 (1970-71).
(*b*)—*Rs* 2,40,553 (1970-71)

The rate of tax in respect of inter-State sales to dealers registered under the Central Sales Tax Act and to Government departments in other States is 3%, subject to the furnishing of prescribed certificates/declaration forms The rate is 10% in respect of inter-State sales to unregistered purchasers In respect of inter-State sales of such goods, the rate of tax in respect of which under the local act is less than 3% the rate applicable is the same (lower) rate as is applicable to inter-State sales Sales of goods which are exempt from tax under the Local Act are also exempt from tax under the Central Sales Tax Act

Trade in Delhi is mainly distributive in character Goods are imported by dealers in Delhi from various other States and then re-exported, mainly to adjoining States In order to protect the distributive character of such trade, inter-State sales made by dealers in Delhi of goods on which Central Sales Tax have been levied at the time of their import into Delhi are taxable at the concessional rate of 1% This concession has been allowed in exercise of the powers conferred by Sec 8(5) of the Act Under this provision the following other concessions have also been allowed

(a) Inter-State sales by dealers in Delhi of such goods which have been imported by them from their places of business or principals/agents in other States and which have suffered tax under the Local Sales Tax law of that State are also taxable under the Central Sales Tax Act at the concessional rate of 1%

(b) Inter-State sales of scientific equipment and instruments to certain educational institutions and hospitals, are taxable at the rate of 5% (instead of 10%)

(c) Inter-State sales of medical preparations to certain hospitals or dispensaries are taxable at the concessional rate of 5% (instead of 10%)

(d) Inter-State sales of pencils to unregistered purchasers are taxable at the rate of 5% (instead of 10%)

Administration

In accordance with the provisions contained in the Central Sales Tax Act, the authorities empowered to assess, collect and enforce payment of tax under the Local Act also assess, collect and enforce payment of tax under the Central Sales Tax Act as well. Separate assessment orders are, however, passed in respect of assessment under the Local and Central Acts. Separate records are also maintained in respect of amendment, registration cancellation, collection etc., under the Central Sales Tax Act.

The number of dealers registered under the Central Sales Tax Act and the revenue from this source during 1959-60 to 1970-71 are as under

Date	Numbers of dealers registered under the Central Act	Revenue from Central Act in financial year (in crores)
1959-60 . . .	10,938	1·18
1960-61 . . .	12,223	1·36
1961-62 . . .	12,391	1·50
1962-63 . . .	13,351	1·68
1963-64 . .	14,423	2·72
1964-65 .	15,895	3·31
1965-66 . .	17,575	3·66
1966-67 . .	19,556	4·67
1967-68 . . .	22,266	5·66
1968-69 . .	25,203	6·60
1969-70 .	28,798	6·91
1970-71 . . .	31,011	7·98

(Source —Commissioner of Sales Tax, Delhi Administration.)

APPENDIX I

Copy of the Second Schedule of Exempted Goods Appended to The Bengal Finance (Sales Tax) Act, 1941, as extended to Delhi (as on 1-4-70)

1 All cereals and pulses including all forms of rice (except when sold in sealed containers)

2 Flour including atta maida suji and bran (except when sold in sealed containers)

3 Bread, chapaties paranthas, stuffed paranthas, puris and stuffed puris w e f 1-7-68

4 Meat (except when sold in sealed containers)

5 Fish (except when sold in sealed containers)

6 Fresh eggs

6A Livestock including poultry

7 Vegetables green or dried and vegetable seeds and plants (other than medical preparations except when sold in sealed containers)

8 Fresh fruits

9 Sugar and molasses

10 Salt

11 Omitted w e f 1-10-59

12 Fresh milk, whole or separated and milk products

13 Omitted w e f 1-7-66

14 Omitted w e f 1-10-59

15 Edible oil produced in indigenous Kohlu or Ghani (without employing electricity or any other power at any stage) when sold by the person owing such indigenous Kohlu or Ghani and dealing exclusively in the production of such indigenous Kohlu and Ghani w e f 1-7-66

16 Omitted w e f 1-7-66

16A Dahi, Butter & Khoa

17 All varieties of cotton, woollen, nylon rayon, pure silk or artificial silk fabrics but excluding durries, druggests and carpets w e f 1-7-66.

18 Omitted w e f 1-10-59

19 Omitted with effect from 14-12-57

20. Omitted w e f 14-12-57

21 Cotton thread w e f 1-8-66

21A Omitted w e f 1-10-59

22 Omitted w e f 1-10-59

23 Hand made paper w e f. 1-7-66

24 School exercise and drawing books.

25 All books

26 Kerosene

27 Omitted w e f 1-10-59.

28 Fuel wood, charcoal

29 Agricultural implements, including chagg-cutters and parts thereof and persian wheels and parts thereof (Added w e f 1-4-69)

30 Omitted w e f 1-10-59

31 Omitted w e f 1-10-59

32 Matches

33 Cattle feeds including fodder

34. Electrical energy.

35 Omitted w e f 24-4-58

36 Omitted w e f 1-7-66

37 Omitted w e f 25-11-57

38. Fertilisers

39 Water but not aerated water or mineral water, or water sold in bottles or sealed containers

40. Omitted w e f 1-4-58.

41. Omitted w e f 14-12-57

42 Omitted w e f 1-10-59

43 Omitted w e f 1-7-66

44 Omitted w e f 1-10-59

45 Tobacco and all its products (w e f 14-12-57)

46

(i) Country made shoes (*juties*) (iii) Cane & Bamboo handicrafts (iv) Earthen-wares made by Kumhars (ii) Omitted	When manufactures— (i) without the use of power & (ii) at a place other than defined in the Factories the factory as Act, 1948 and sold either by the maker himself or by any member of his family or by a cooperative society consisting wholly of the makers of such articles

47 Achar and murabba except when sold in sealed containers

48 Charkha, Takli and Charkhas accessories

49. Slate slate pencils, takhties, black ink used for takhties writing chalks, crayons foot rules of the type used in schools kalams (pens used for takhties)

50 Betal leaves

51 Omitted w e f 1-7-66

52 Burdana including hessian cloth, iron strips and wooden tin packing, the sale of which is incidental to dealings in any of the other goods mentioned in this Schedule w e f 1-4-1960

53. Cotton padding w e f 1-1-1961

54 Omitted w e f 1-7-66

55 Pesticides w e f 1-1-1963

56 Plant Protection Machines w e f 1-1-1963

57 Blood for transfusion, that is to say, fresh human blood or plasma, liquid or dried, w e f 1-7-66

58 Condoms added w e f 1-7-68

59 Ready-made Khadi garments (Added w e f 1-3-69)

60. Bhang (Effective from 1-4-70)

APPENDIX II

Schedule of rates of Sales Tax in Delhi Under the Bengal Finance (Sales Tax) Act, 1941 *as in force in the Union Territory of Delhi*

S.No.	Description	Rate per cent
1	Bullion and specie w.e.f 25-11-1957	1/2
2	Readymade garments including hosiery garments, other than furcoats and garments sold at a price of Rs 30 per peice or more w e f 1-4-1958 . .	1
3	Ornaments (Silver) w e f 1-7-1966	1
4	Ornaments (Gold) w.e f 1-7-1966	2
5	Declared goods as below	2
	(a) Coal including coke in all its forms . .	
	(b) Cotton as defined in Sec. 14 of the Central Sales Tax Act, 1956	
	(c) Iron & Steel as defined in Sec 14 of the Central Sales Tax Act, 1956	
	(d) Jute as defined in Sec.14 of the C S T. Act, 1956	
	(e) Oil Seeds as defined in Sec. 14 of the C.S T. Act, 1956	
6	All other goods excepting goods in the Second Schedule appended to the Bengal Finance (Sales Tax) Act, 1941, as in force in the Union Territory of Delhi (Goods in the Second Schedule of the Act are exempt from the levy of Sales Tax) . . .	5
7	Articles ordinarily prepared by Halwais, dealing exclusively in such articles, when sold by them w e f 1-10-1962	2
8	Razai Gilafs (quilt-covers) costing not more than Rs. 15 perpiece w e f 1-10-1962	1
9	Ready-made garments of pure silk as per conditions in item No 2 above w e f 1-12-1961 . . .	1
10	Ready-made Umbrella cloth covers w.e.f. 1-4-60 .	1
11	Motor spirit, aviation spirit and high-speed diesel oil w.e.f. 15-5-1963	7

S. No.	Description	Rate per cent
12	Raw wool w e f. 1-7-1966	1
13	Ghee w e f 1-7-1966	1
14	Durries w e f 1-7-1966	4
15	White printing paper, cream laid paper and newsprint w e f 1-7-1966	4
16	Hides & Skin whether in raw or dressed state (including leather) w e f 1-7-1966	1
17	Cotton Yarn w e f 1-8-1966	1
18	Motor Vehicles including chassis of motor vehicles motor tyres and tubes and spare parts of motor vehicles	10 w e f 1-6-63
19	Motor cycles and cycle combinations, (motor scooters motorettes & tyres and tubes and spares parts of motor cycles) motor scooter, motorettes . .	10 ,,
20	Refrigerators and air-conditioning plants and components parts thereof	10 ,,
21	Wire-less reception instruments and apparatus radios and radio gramophones electrical valves, accumulators amplifires and loud-speakers . . .	10 ,,
22	Cinematographic equipments including cameras projectors and sound recording and reproducing equipment, lenses, films and parts & accessories required for use herewith	10 ,,
23	Photographic and other cameras and enlargers, lenses, films & plates, paper and cloth and other parts and accessories required for use therewith . .	10 w e f 1-6-62
24	All clocks, time-pieces & watches & parts thereof .	10 ,,
25	Iron & Steel Safes and Almirahs	10 ,,
26	All Arms including rifles, revolvers, pistols and ammunitions	10 ,,
27	Cigarette cases and lighters . .	10 ,,

S No.	Description	Rate per cen
28	Dictaphone and other similar apparatus for recording sound and spare parts thereof	10 w.e.f. 1-6-62
29	Sound transmitting equipment including telephones and loudspeakers and spare parts thereof . .	10 ,,
30	Typewriters, tabulating machines, calculating machines and duplicating machines and parts thereof .	10 ,,
31	Binaculars, telescopes and opera glasses . .	10 ,,
32	Gramophones and component parts thereof and records	10 ,,
33	Cosmetics, but not including kum-kum and soap .	8 w e f. 1-9-66
34	Electrical goods, other than electrical plants, equipments and their accessories including service meters required for generation, transmission and distribution . .	9 ,,
35	Pile carpets	8 ,,
36	Sanitary goods and fittings	7 ,,
37	Table cutlery	9 ,,
38	Leather goods except footwear	7 ,,
39	Glassware, glazedware and chinaware (including crockery)	7 ,,
40	Iron & Steel furniture, but not including iron and steel, sales and almirahs . . .	9 ,,
41	Furniture other than iron and steel furniture .	7 ,,
42	Vacuum flasks	9 ,,
43	Accessorie of (a) motor vehicles, (b) motor cycles (c) motor scooters and (d) motorettes .	8 ,,
44	Photographs	8 ,,
45	Foreign liquor and Indian made foreign liquor w e.f 1-10-1966	9
46	Country liquor, w e f 1-4-68	5

Taxable at first point

1 Vegetable Ghee w e f 1-1-1961

2 Coal w e f 1-2-1963

3 Motor spirit, aviation spirit and high speed diesel oil, w e f 15-5-1963

4 Medicines Drugs and Pharmaceutical preparations w e f 1-1-1965

5 Cement, w e f 1-4-1965

6 All kinds of Tyres & Tubes including those of motor vehicles, motor cycles, motor scooters, motorettes, cycles and animal-driven vehicles

CHAPTER XII

LAW, ORDER AND JUSTICE

Delhi's growth since partition has been tremendously rapid. The unprecendented flow of refugees and the tensions it created resulting in communal riots in 1947, posed the first serious threat after independence to the law and order machinery which practically broke down under the strain. The army had to be called out to assist the civil authorities in restoring order

Even after the refugee influx, the population of Delhi has been growing continuously because of the rich avenues of employment and business available here. The mass explosion of population has resulted into shortage of housing accommodation, over crowded localities, slums, traffic congestion etc, which have aggravated the law and order problems in the city There has been increase in crimes of various nature. Delhi has been lading all other cities in crimes like murder, robbery and thefts Whereas in 1950, there were 60 murders, 73 robberies and 4,850 thefts, in 1970, there were 123 murders, 363 robberies and 18,011 thefts There is large scale smuggling also to and from Delhi, as it is a large consuming centre and touches Uttar Pradesh on one side and Haryana on the other The other crimes like prostitution, illicit distillation, kidnapping and abduction etc, are also on the increase The increased traffic accidents have also posed problems for the law and order authorities There has been an enormous increase in traffic on city roads and inadequate traffic flow conditions The number of motor vehicles have increased from 9,803 in 1947 to 2,15,703 in 1971 Consequently, the number of road accidents have also gone up from 2,838 in 1958 to 6,893 in 1971 There were frequent traffic jams and hold-ups on important junctures which created problem for the law and order machinery.

After becoming the capital, the diplomatic activities in Delhi have also increased Almost all the important leaders, heads of States, VIPs of different countries have visited capital of India since independence.

The law and order machinery of Delhi is also under constant strain due to the various agitations, demonstrations, which quite frequently take place in Delhi.

Incidence In Crime

Crime

Crimes in Delhi have witnessed a gradual increase since independence which is inevitable due to rapid urbanisation and industrial development The general crime figures rose from 5,177 in 1947 to 35,295 in 1971 While 25 years ago, murders, kidnapping, riots and demonstrations engaged the police, at present they have also to deal with car thefts and burglaries in houses and shops The number of cases registered was the highest in the year 1970 The sudden increase after 1969 was primarily due to the free registration of cases by the police The increase in the number of cases registered under the local and special laws while shows an increase in the crimes it is perhaps also indicative of greater vigilance and activity by the police against smugglers bootleggars and other anti-social elements The following Table illustrates the statistics of crime in general from the year 1912 to 1971 *

TABLE 1

Crime in Delhi—Number of Cases

Year	Reported	Convicted	Acquitted
1912	1,573	584	217
1920	1,578	[illegible]07	152
1930	2,606	848	269
1940	3,516	1,022	[illegible]25
1950	11,146	4,170	9[illegible]0
1960	11,918	5,127	1,976
1961	15,629	5,924	2,053
1962	18,341	4,423	1,730
1963	19,138	5,760	2,867
1964	22,184	6,440	2,630
1965	24,241	8,815	3,351
1966	22,714	6,415	3,729
1967	23,691	5,940	3,499
1968	22,639	6,020	3,589
1969	23,274	6,243	3,222
1970	37,272	4,635	2,288
1971	35,295	5,238	3,592

**Source* . *I G Police, Delhi*

The figures according to various crimes are given in the following Table

TABLE 2

Crimes in Delhi—Categories

Description	1912	1920	1930	1940	1950	1960	1961	1962
1 Murder	6	15	22	29	60	57	57	53
2 Dacoity	4	1	25	8	8	3	..	1
3 Attempt to murder	2	2	8	13	53	42	36	38
4 Robbery	8	8	34	35	73	25	20	33
5 Riots	10	10	21	30	91	63	39	84
6 Burglary	301	500	614	817	1,291	1,198	1,125	1,602
7 Thefts	711	687	885	1,487	4,850	5,525	6,062	8,116
8 Kidnapping and Abduction	9	15	42	34	92	182	209	208
9 Arson		1	6	2	30	12	20	25
10 Misc IPC	376	306	599	782	1,960	2,898	3,006	3,446
11 Sex crimes	13	6	20	21	52	68	69	80
12 Smuggling	..	..	..	—	..	216	76	54
13 Local and special Law	133	27	330	285	2,583	4,630	4,910	4,596
TOTAL	1,573	1,578	2,606	3,546	11,146	14,918	15,629	18,341

TABLE 2—*Contd*

Description	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971
1. Murder .	69	59	76	73	65	86	96	123	106
2 Dacoity . .	.	2	10	3	--	6	2	28	13
3 Attempt to murder	54	45	83	64	66	76	94	135	165
4. Robbery . .	52	73	50	54	41	35	43	363	321
5 Riots . .	86	89	72	102	95	78	92	194	
6 Burglary . .	1,436	1,174	1,585	1,402	1,319	1,229	1,230	3,350	2,617
7. Thefts .	8,503	9,326	10,394	10,053	10,388	9,703	9,998	18,011	16,767
8 Kidnapping and Abduction .	203	257	283	249	260	226	304	529	..
9. Arson . .	29	44	28	38	27	28	29	41	57
10. Misc IPC .	3,843	4,920	4,441	4,801	5,696	5,391	5,582	8,257	9,160
11. Sex crimes . .	98	75	87	95	71	79	135	210	.
12. Smuggling . .	73	1,108	1,254	428	874	222	85	28	.
13. Local and Special Law .	4,692	5,012	5,878	5,352	4,789	5,480	5,584	6,003	6,089
TOTAL	19,138	22,184	24,241	22,714	23,691	22,639	23,274	37,272	35,295

Murders

The number of murder cases was as high as 254 during the year 1947 which was mainly due to the post-partition disturbances The average number of such cases was less than thirty upto 1940 and upto sixty in the fiftys There has, however, been a gradual increase from 1968 onwards The murder cases in 1970 and 1971 (123 and 106) have shared the general increase in the crime situation in Delhi The number increased to 124 in 1972

The following is the classification of murders according to motives

	Motives	Year				
		1950	1960	1966	1970	1971
I	Sexual jealousy	2	7	9	9	11
II	Gain	4	3	8	8	7
III	Family disputes	6	7	13	16	21
IV	Factions	1	6	2	11	4
V	Other causes	42	33	39	71	54
VI	Technical			1	3	4
VII	Land disputes	5	1	1	5	5
	TOTAL	60	57	73	123	10

Dacoities

Crimes of this nature decreased from 1930 to 1969 The number of dacoities committed increased in 1970 but decreased in 1971

Robberies

Most of the cases of robbery were generally those of people being waylaid on the roads and relieved of cash etc The number of cases registered was negligible upto 1969 but has increased to

363 in 1970 and again decreased to 321 in 1971 The number however, increased to 373 in 1972

Riots

The average number of riots committed in Delhi upto the year 1965 was less than 100 The number increased to 102 in 1966 and again decreased during the period from 1967 to 1969 The maximum number of cases registered under this head was 194 in the year 1970

Burglaries And Thefts

The number of thefts and burglaries committed in Delhi has been the largest of all other crimes The trend of these crimes has been similar to the general trend in crime situation The majority of the cases of burglary and theft occur in the urban areas and the posh localities are not excluded The number of thefts committed upto the year 1969 was less than ten thousand but was 18,011 in 1970, the highest, which came down to 16,767 in 1971 In 1972, however, the number again rose to 18,760 Pick-pocketing is a peculiar crime in Delhi and is committed on the railway stations, important bus stops and in the buses due to great rush of people In seventies thefts of automobile and its parts also increased In 1972, 581 cars were stolen as against 25 in 1960

Other Crimes

There has been a general increase in the number of cases reported under arson, sex crimes, kidnapping and abduction etc The cases registered for kidnapping and abduction and sex crimes were highest in 1970

Cognizable Crimes

Cognizable offences under the Indian Penal Code have been classified into six separate categories for the purpose of investigation The following statement gives the number of crimes according to six separate categories mentioned above for the years 1950, 1960, 1966, 1970 and 1971:

Class	Nature of Crime	Years				
		1950	1960	1966	1970	1971
I	Offences against the State, public, tranquility, safety and justice	145	161	206	339	527
II	Serious offences against persons .	846	1,492	2,342	3,629	3,640
III	Serious offences against persons and property or against property .	1,411	1,254	1,614	4,118	3,315
IV	Minor offences against persons . . .	264	358	913	2,312	2,398
V	Minor offences against property . . .	5,747	6,337	11,393	20,202	18,735
VI	Other offences not specified above	150	470	466	641	621
	TOTAL	8,563	10,072	16,934	31,241	29,236

Unnatural Deaths

Unnatural deaths under the law have to be reported to the police so that the real causes can be determined The police have to send the dead bodies for a thorough *post-mortem* examination The medico-legal and *post-mortem* work is done in the All India Institute of Medical Sciences, Maulana Azad Medical College and the Police Hospital Inquest proceedings are held when witnesses are called to testify to the facts of the case After these formalities are completed, the bodies are handed over to the relatives

The Table given below indicates the incidence of unnatural deaths during the years 1966, 1970 and 1971

TABLE 3

Unnatural deaths

	Category	Year 1966	1970	1971
I	Accidental drowning	78	80	107
II	Suicidal drowning	45	31	23
III	Hanging	31	22	21
IV	Snake bites	3	1	
V	Burns	106	199	187
VI	Electric shocks	33	33	32
VII	Motor accidents	137	193	211
VIII	Fall from heights	30	60	65
IX	Run over by cars	3	..	.
X	Poisoning	35	33	44
XI	Railway accidents	178	132	19
XII	Other causes	534	821	639
	TOTAL	1,213	1,605	1,525

Cases Reported Under Local And Special Laws

Delhi recorded a total number of 6,031 cases (excluding cases under Motor Vehicles Act) under this category in the year 1970 Some noticeable features of these offences are given below under important heads.

Head of Crime	1970
Arms Act	485
Opium Act	227
Gambling Act	1,519
Excise /Prohibition Act	3,054
Explosive Substances Act/Exp Act	5
S.I T in Women and Girls Act	68
Offences under other special and local laws declared to be cognizable but not included above	673
TOTAL	6,031

Persons Arrested

During 1970, 12,670 persons were apprehended for committing cognizable crimes under the Indian Penal Code as against 9,859 persons during 1969 indicating an increase of 28.5% *

Juvenile Delinquency

1,139 cases were committed by Juveniles and youthful offenders in 1970 in the Union Territory of Delhi and as many as 3,372 Juveniles were arrested in Delhi as against total number of 3,802 in all the Union Territories together During 1970, 1,011 were restored to guardians, 784 to schools and Institutions, 375 to adult Institutions and jails, four to reformatories, four kept on probation 294 were otherwise disposed of and 900 were pending disposal The following Table presents the statistics of crimes committed by juveniles in Delhi **

TABLE 4

Juvenile Delinquency

Head of Crime	1970
(1) Murder	11
(2) Kidnapping and abduction	33
(3) Dacoity	.
(4) Robbery	22
(5) House breaking	113
(6) Thefts of cattle	.
(7) Thefts ordinary	495
(8) Riots	20
(9) Criminal breach of trust	19
(10) Cheating	17
(11) Counterfeiting	
(12) Miscellaneous	409
Total cognizable crime	1,139

*Source :—*Crime in India* 1970, pp. 31, 37

***Source :—*Crime in India* 1970, pp. 46, 47, 53, & 58.

Motor Vehicle Offences

The number of cases put up for trial by the police in respect of offences under the Motor Vehicle Act for some selected years is given below

TABLE 5

Motor vehicle Offences

Category	Year			
	1960	1966	1970	1971
Overspeeding . . .	7,516	3,902	4,061	9,562
Use of dazzling lights .	402	256		
Violation of traffic signals	5,617	9,050	8,670	13,325
Defective vehicles		930	939	716
Using route without permit	695	1,299	1,443	1,205
Driving without licence		7,231	14,793	10,603
Unauthorised carrying of passengers in goods vehicles	1,385	1,695	1,306	1,082
Over-loading . .	881	1,147	4,287	1,263

The following Table gives the figures of motor accidents for the year 1960, 1966, 1970 and 1971

TABLE 6

Motor accident

Category of vehicle	Year			
	1960	1966	1970	1971
Motor cars/jeeps . . .	1,207	2,368	2,221	2,012
Motor buses .	1,275	1,480	1,226	963
Motor lorries (trucks) . .	699	1,412	1,234	1,222
Motor cycles and Scooters .	412	1,114	1,336	1,125
Other vehicles . . .	1,221	1,973	1,895	1,571
TOTAL .	4,814	8,347	7,912	6,893

The unmber of persons killed and injured in road accidents during those years were as follows :

	Year			
	1960	1966	1970	1971
Killed	163	345	534	418
Injured . .	1,769	3,194	3,757	3,698

Organization Of Police

If one goes back far enough into history, of the Mughal days, there was a kind of police establishment but it was not a regularly organised force When the British started taking over power, they found an indigenous police system based on mutual security, each villager providing security to his neighbours and at the top, an enforcement police responsible for controlling crime and disorder The Mughal official who came close to an inspector of today was the *Kotwal* who was the chief of the city police His duties are vividly described in *Ain-i-Akbari* For instance, he was to be present at all royal durbars He received daily reports from watchmen about the happenings in the city and maintained a number of paid informers The system may have worked well under the Mughals, but as Mughal hold on government started weakening the village police was seized by the *zamindars* at many places and often utilised for their own benefit In order to improve the police administration the British abolished this indigenous system based on mutual security and replaced it by a centrally appointed police with a magistrate in-charge of a district Thus a pre-dominantly peoples' police gave place to a centrally-appointed police owning allegiance to a foreign power

Before becoming the capital of India, in 1912, Delhi, being the part of the Punjab, used to be policed by the Punjab Police After its separation from Punjab in 1912, Delhi was made a Chief Commissioner's province The Chief Commissioner was also vested with the powers and functions of the Inspector General of Police

According to 1912 Gazetteer, the district was under the control of the D I G. of police whose headquarter was at Ambala. The police force in Delhi District was under the command of the

Superintendent whose immediate subordinates were one Assistant Superintendent and a Deputy Superintendent of Police There were two Inspectors, 27 Sub-Inspectors, 110 Head Constables, 985 Foot Constables and 28 Sowars The rural police were in the special charge of two Inspectors with their headquarters at Sonepat and Ballabgarh respectively and were distributed amongst 10 *thanas* as follows

Tahsil Sonepat	Tahsil Delhi	Tahsil Ballabgarh
Larsauli	Alipur	Mahrauli
Sonepat	Nangloi	Faridabad
Rai	Najafgarh	Ballabgarh
		Chhansa

In each *thana* were one Sub-Inspector There were one Sub-Inspector, two Head Constables and 10 Foot Constables but at Larsauli (which was the most populous *thana*), there was an extra Sub-Inspector and two extra Constables In addition, there were 7 outposts at Maqbara Paik, Tihar, Fatehpur Beri, Pali, Dhauj, Manjhauli and Badarpur and four road posts at Sarai Sita Ram, Safdar Jung, Nizamuddin and Sikri

For Delhi city there were three large *thanas*—Kotwali, Sabzimandi and Paharganj In the Civil Lines were spacious police barracks where the Reserve, Armed Reserve and recruits were accommodated

The force was recruited locally and also had a fair proportion of Punjabi Muhammadans The men were trained under the supervision of the Reserve Inspector and ½ per cent of the force was sent generally for a course of instructions at the Phillaur School

There was a re-organisation of the police force in 1946, when the following additional staff was sanctioned ·

Superintendent of Police	1
Deputy Superintendents of Police	2
Inspectors	10
Sergeants	4
Sub-Inspectors	35
Assistant Sub-Inspectors	83
Head Constables	239
Constables	907

In 1947, due to the partition of the country, large influx of refugee population rolled in and out. It carried in its train, perhaps some criminals also, whose criminal records were not known in the new places of migration The crime in 1948 suddenly rose to 18,635. Delhi was confronted with new and unexpected problems of law and order. Consequently, a separate post of an Inspector General of Police for Delhi was sanctioned from 16-2-1948. Formerly the Chief Commissioner was the *ex-officio* Inspector General. In 1951, the strength of Delhi Police consisted of one Inspector General of Police, eight Superintendents of Police, one Police Radio Officer, one Assistant Superintendent of Police, 21 Deputy Superintendents of Police, 54 Inspectors, 228 Sub-Inspectors, 378 Assistant Sub-Inspectors, 1,132 Head Constables and 6,202 Constables (all branches)

A post of Deputy Inspector General of Police was created in 1956 The number of Superintendents of Police rose to 11, Assistant Superintendents of Police to 4, Deputy Superintendents of Police to 34, Inspectors to 84, Sub-Inspectors to 456, Assistant Sub-Inspectors 632, Head Constables to 1,686 and Constables to 9,226 in the year 1961 The strength of Police force in Delhi from 1952 to 1961 is given in Appendix I One additional post of Deputy Inspector General (A) was sanctioned in 1964 and another of Dy Inspector General (AP) in 1967 In the year 1966, the Government of India had constituted a Police Commission headed by Justice G D Khosla, for considering the working, re-organisation and other problems of the Delhi Police Consequently, on the basis of the recommendations of the Commission, the Delhi Police was re-organised

Present Organisation Of Police Department

A number of authorities play their respective roles as far as the administration of the Police Department is concerned Broadly speaking, these authorities are

(1) The Lt. Governor,

(2) The District Magistrate, and

(3) The Inspector General of Police

The responsibility for the command of the police force, its recruitment, discipline, internal economy and administration vests in the Inspector General of Police He is head of the Police Department in Delhi and responsible for its direction and control and for advising the Government in all matters connected with it

in the discharge of the duties as Inspector General and in execution of orders of the Government.

The Inspector General derives authority from Section 4 of the Police Act Under Section 12 of the Police Act, the Inspector General has powers to make rules (subject to the approval of the State Government) regarding the organisation, classification and distribution of the police force Rule 1 2 of the Punjab Police Rules amplifies the powers of the Inspector General of Police He is also bound to act in conformity with the system and regulations regarding the functions, discipline and administration of the police force specified in the Police Act, 1861, and in the Punjab Police Rules

The Inspector General of Police has under his administrative control three Deputy Inspector Generals designated as Deputy Inspector General (A), Deputy Inspector General (B) and Deputy Inspector General (AP), two Assistant Inspector Generals of Police and one Personal Assistant of the rank of Deputy Superintendent of Police The Deputy Inspector General (B) is incharge of the four police districts and also of traffic police. The Deputy Inspector General (A) is incharge of various special branches, namely, C I D, Crime and Railways, Foreign Regional Registration Office, Security, Vigilance, C P.O. The Deputy Inspector General (Armed Police) is incharge of Lines Demolition Squad, MT (Motor Transport), Control Room, C&T (Comments and Transport), Police Training School and the Delhi Armed Police The Superintendents of Police are in general incharge of law and odrer in their districts. The Superintendent of Police also carries on administrative duties through his office which has three branches, the Crime Office, the Accounts Office and the English Office The Crime Branch maintains the crime index and records of all crimes committed in the District as also maps and graphs, and it is through this branch that the Superintendent of Police exercises control over law and order and crime and initiates preventive and detective work The Accounts Office deals with all account matters including pay and allowances and is responsible for making regular and proper payment to the staff

The English Office deals with all miscellaneous correspondence, public relations, correspondence with government and higher authorities and buildings

The disciplinary and personnel work, which is very important in the police force is usually centred in what is called a reserve office of the Superintendent of Police In this office are maintained all the service records of the entire police force in the district,

i e leave, punishment, reward and other miscellaneous registers. Uniforms and clothing and other miscellaneous stores required for equipping the police are also kept in this office Here, too, stocks of arms and ammunition are maintained. The reserve office usually has an instructional staff to give refresher courses to the constables and the head constables of the district The Reserve Office allots personnel for all the fixed guards and escorts and arranges their regular relief. This office also holds the entire striking force of the Superintendent of Police which may be required in any emergency It is in this office that the Superintendent of Police holds orderly room to deal with all disciplinary cases not only of reward or punishment but also of leave and all miscellaneous work The organisational set up and strength of the Delhi Police as in 1971 is given in Appendix-II.

Delhi in 1971 had 43 police stations comprising one district as contemplated by Section 10 of the Code of Criminal Procedure and so there was one District Magistrate for the entire Territory. However, for police administration purposes, the Territory has been divided into four police districts, each under a Superintendent of Police There are Additional District Magistrates, one roughly for each police district to assist the District Magistrate in matters of criminal jus ice and administration. The four police districts are the North, the Central, the South and the New Delhi District

In 1971, North and Central Districts had 13 police stations
In 1971, North and Central Districts had 13 police stations
each, the South District 12, and the New Delhi District five police

1 Kotwali
2 Lahore Gate
3. Kashmire Gate
4 Sadar Bazar
5 Roshanara
6 Sarai Rohilla
7 Civil Lines
8. Subzimandi
9 Kingsway Camp
10 Shahdara
11 Gandhi Nagar
12 Alipur
13 Narela

The following police stations are in Central District·

1 Daryaganj
2. Paharganj
3 Hauz Kazi
4 Kamla Marke
5. Jama Masjid
6 Karol Bagh
7 Original Road
8. Patel Nagar
9. Moti Nagar
10. Tilak Nagar
11. Punjabi Bagh
12. Najafgarh
13. Nangloi

The South District has the following police stations

1. Rajinder Nagar
2. Vinay Nagar
3. Kalkaji
4. Defence Colony
5. Nizamuddin
6. Mehrauli
7. Lajpat Nagar
8. Delhi Cantt
9. Lodi Colony
10. Srinivaspuri
11. Hauz Khas
12. Ramakrishnapuram

The New Delhi district has the following police stations

1. Parliament streets
2. Tilak Marg
3. Mandir Marg
4. Chanakya puri
5. Tughluq road

The sanctioned strength of various police districts in 1971 was as under:

	North	Central	South	New Delhi	Total
1 Superintendent of Police	1	1	1	1	4
2 Additional Superintendent of Police	1	1		1	3
3 Deputy Superintendent of police/Assistant Superintendent of Police	6	6	5	3	20
4 Chief prosecutor	1	1		1	3
5 Senior prosecutors .	2	2	2	1	–
6 Inspectors .	19	18	18	11	66
7 Sub-inspectors .	140	142	121	91	494
8 Prosecutors .	16	18	7	5	46
9 Assistant sub-Inspectors .	117	105	101	60	383
10 Head constables	271	264	226	161	922
11 Constables . . .	1,569	1,500	1,313	884	5,266

In addition, the following specialized branches are also functioning in the Delhi Police each under the charge of Superintendent of Police or Deputy Superintendent of Police

C. I. D. (Special Branch)—The functions of the Special Branch (or Intelligence Branch) is to collect, corelate, disseminate and record intelligence on political matters and matters of interest from the security point of view The Special Branch also makes secret inquiries to assist the investigation of important cases which have a political significance

Delhi is a very important in this respect Every political problem in India finds its echo in Delhi. There is hectic political activity during the Parliament sessions Because of the Parliament, most of the importment political parties also have their headquarters in Delhi and during the session of Parliament, many important leaders of the various political parties come to reside in Delhi The location of foreign embassies in the capital makes it necessary to keep a look out for subversive contacts

However, political activities do frequently make an immediate impact on the law and order situation in the city, and these are of special interest to the Delhi Special Branch, Vigilance has also to be maintained by the Delhi Police in case of visitors from foreign countries The volume of verification work is large and intelligence about VIP security is also of much concern to it

This branch is headed by a Superintendent of Police, assisted by six Dy Superintendents of Police The sanctioned strength of this branch in 1971, in addition to Superintendent of Police and Deputy Superintendents of Police, was 26 Inspectors, 127 Sub-Inspectors, 172 Assistant Sub-Inspectors, 266 Head Constables and 110 Constables

Crime and Railway—In 1971 this branch was also headed by a Superintendent of Police assisted by nine Deputy Superintendents of Police, (including one Deputy Superintendent of Police for Railway Police), one Chief Prosecutor, 26 Inspectors, 96 Sub-Inspectors, one Senior Prosecutor, three Prosecutors, one Special Police Officer (Gr II), 73 Assistant Sub-Inspectors, 142 Head Constables and 353 Constables.

This branch has to investigate crime requiring specialized knowledge or technique in investigation The function of the Crime Branch of the Criminal Investigation Department is to assist the district police in the prevention and detection of crime The assistance is given without any way diluting the responsibility of the district police in this respect In fact, the distirict police continues to remain solely responsible for the prevention as well

as the detection of crime The Criminal Investigation Department gives it such specialist assistance as may be required in some of the more complicated and difficult cases.

The Crime Branch in Delhi has four Divisions:

1 The General Office,
2 The Criminal Record Office,
3 Investigation Squads, and
4 Technical Units.

The General Office deals with all ordinary correspondence and accounts matters. The Criminal Record Office collects, corelates and distributes information relating to professional crimes and criminals It is also responsible for the publication of a weekly gazette and daily bulletin for distribution to police stations and also for the preparation of charts, graphs and statistics The main squads in this branch are:

1 Missing Persons Squad,
2 Anti-cheating Squad,
3 Anti-forgery Squad,
4 Crime Record Office,
5 Single Digit Finger Print Bureau,
6 Photographic Section,
7 Criminal Breach of Trust Squad, and
8 Anti-forged Currency Notes Squad etc

Security—This branch is headed by one Superintendent of Police, one Additional Superintendent of Police assisted by nine Assistant Superintendents of Police/Deputy Superintendents of Police, 19 Inspectors, 178 Sub-Inspectors, 228 Assistant Sub-Inspectors, 243 Head Constables and 716 Constables It is obvious that the security problem in Delhi are stupendous As Delhi is the capital of the country, the Delhi Police has to play an important part in the Security of VIPs stationed in Delhi, as well as coming from outside Security in Parliament is also essential in view of the concentration of a large number of VIPs in the two houses of Parliament Two types of staff required for security in Parliament are (1) for general security in the corridors, on the balconies and near the VIP rooms and (2) for special watch in the gallaries.

A VIP, Indian or foreign, often attends functions at private or public places as a result of which special security arrangements are made at all such places

Foreigners Regional Registration Office—This branch has two Deputy Superintendents of Police, assisted by 17 Inspectors, 76 Sub-Inspectors, 22 Assistant Sub-Inspectors, 43 Head Constables and 47 Constables. The main functions of this branch are to watch the activities of the Foreign diplomats and also to deal with the foreigners who visit India.

Traffic—This branch is headed by a Superintendent of Police, assisted by three Assistant Superintendent of Police/Deputy Superintendents of Police, 14 Inspectors, 44 Sub-Inspectors, 35 Assistant Sub-Inspectors, 140 Head Constables and 830 Constables

Lines—This unit is headed by one Superintendent of Police, assisted by four Assistant Superintendents of Poilce/Deputy Superintendents of Police, ten Inspectors, 26 Sub-Inspectors, 52 Assistant Sub-Inspectors, 112 Head Constables and 445 Constables The responsibility of the Old Delhi Police Lines is maintenance of stores, teargas squad, the hospital and practically the entire contingency reserve of the Union Territory In addition all the reserve transport is kept there

Wireless Staff—This branch is headed by one Superintendent of Police, assisted by one Deputy Superintendent of Police, three Inspectors, 13 Sub-Inspectors, 70 Assistant Sub-Inspectors, 231 Head Constables, and 48 Constables The post of one Deputy Superintendent of Police, two Inspectors, seven Assistant Sub-Inspectors, 20 Head Constables and 18 Constables sanctioned for Motor transport staff are also functioning under the supervision of Superintendent of Police (Communication and Transport)

Demolition Squad.—The sanctioned strength of this Squad in 1971 was one Deputy Superintendent of Police, three Inspectors, 17 Sub-Inspectors, 27 Head Constables and 102 Constables

Police Training School—Delhi had no training facilities of its own and had to depend on Phillaur (Punjab) chiefly to train its officers and men before the establishment of Police Training School in Delhi, established in 1969 on the recommendations of Khosla Commission The sanctioned strength of the school in 1971 comprised one Principal (Superintendent of Police), two

Deputy Superintendent of Police, 11 Inspectors, one Senior Prosecutor, 15 Sub-Inspector, four Prosecutors, four Assistant Sub-Inspectors, 49 Head Constables, 72 Constables and three teachers The school is situated near Mehrauli

Delhi Armed Police—On the pattern of Indian Reserve Battalion, the Government of India in the year 1967 had reorganised Delhi Armed Police into four battalions and each battalion is headed by a Commandant (Superintendent of Police) This force performs the following duties

1 Fixed guards at the residences of VIPs at Rashtrapati Bhawan, P M 's residence, etc,
2 Fixed guards at various installations like the power house, water-works, etc
3 Escorts for prisoners
4 Patrolling etc, whenever required in the outlying areas
5 Law and Order work

The sanctioned strength of four battalions in 1971 was four Commandants (Superintendents of Police) 12 Assistant Superintendents of Police/Dy Superintendents of Police 32 Inspectors 124 Sub-Inspectors 19 Assistant Sub-Inspectors, 706 Head Constables and 3 205 Constables

Vigilance—This Branch entertains complaints against the police and is headed by one Superintendent of police, assisted by six Assistant Superintendents of Police/Deputy Superintendents of Police, nine Inspectors, four Sub-Inspectors, two Assistant Sub-Inspectors nine Head Constables and 35 Constables

Central Police Office—The present sanctioned strength of this unit is one Inspector General of Police, three Deputy Inspectors General of Police two Assistant Inspectors General of Police one Superintendent of Police (Manual) one Deputy Superintendent of Police, five Inspectors 20 Sub-Inspectors, eight Prosecutors, 60 Assistant Sub-Inspectors, 92 Head Constables, 39 Constables, one Educational Adviser one Educational Assistant two Internal Auditors one Senior Psychologist one Legal Adviser one Asstt Information Officer and one Financial Adviser

Mounted Police—The strength of the Delhi Mounted Police in 1968 was one Sub-Inspector, two Assistant Sub-Inspectors six Head Constables and 74 Constables There were 83 horses one for each of these mounted policemen

The Mounted Police is used on the occasion of parades or shows, for controlling crowds In the rural areas, the Mounted Police is used for patrolling The Mounted Police is also used for general police parades etc

Women Police—The strength of the Delhi Women Police force in 1968 was two Inspectors, four Sub-Inspectors, two Assistant Sub-Inspectors, 11 Head Constables and 102 Constables The educational standard for Constables is middle pass and for Sub-Inspectors Intermediate The Women Police at present are used for interrogating women suspects, accused and witnesses, searches and investigations in which women are concerned, custody of women accused in police stations, assisting in dealing with disorderly houses, assisting in the investigation of offences against women, assisting in the control of demonstrations in which women take part and recovery and care of abducted women and children

Railway Police—The following Police Stations/Police posts were functioning in 1971

Name of Police station	Name of Police Posts
1 Railway Station, Delhi Main . .	1 Railway Station, Shahdara
2 Railway station, New Delhi	2 Kishan Ganj
	3 Sarai Rohilla
	4 Subzi Mandi

Prohibition Squad—Anti-Corruption Squad and Home Guards are not under the administrative control of the Delhi Police In the year 1965, the administrative control of the G R P was transferred to the Delhi Police and this branch is now functioning under the supervision of Superintendent of Police, Crime

Home Guards

The Bombay Home Guards Act, 1947 was extended to the Union Territory of Delhi in April, 1959 This was done with the object of training the public of the Union Territory of Delhi to rise to the occasion during emergencies that arise during natural calamities riots, strikes and external aggression

Strength

The Union Territory of Delhi has been divided into 35 divisions for the purpose of raising Home Guards The area

of each of these divisions has been so demarcated as to encompass a population of about one lakh persons In each division, one battalion with a strength of 300 Home Guards has been raised Each battalion is divided into three companies, each company into three Platoons and each Platoon into three sections The strength of each section is ten including the section leader and the assistant section leader A Platoon consists of three sections and is headed by the Platoon Commander who is assisted by a Havildar Each Company consists of three Platoons and is headed by Company Commander and each battalion has three companies headed by a battalion Commander The total strength, therefore, of one battalion comes to 300 persons The total strength of the Delhi Home Guards in 1972 was 10,500 *

Organisation

The Home Guards organisation is headed by a Commandent General, who is appointed by the Lt. Governor of Delhi A senior staff officer-ordinarily an officer in the senior pay-scale of the I P S, acts as Commandant under the Commandant General and is responsible for the efficient running of the Home Guards The Commandant, Home Guards, is assisted by a junior staff officer, Home Guards, who looks after the routine work relating to office etc There are three Districts in the Union Territory of Delhi whose boundaries are con current with those of North District, Central District and New Delhi and South District combined together Each District is headed by a District Staff Officer who is responsible to the Commandant Home Guards, for the efficient functioning of Home Guards in their respective districts as well as training promotions etc The number of divisions in each District varies according to the population The North District has the largest number of divisions i e 13, Central District has 12 divisions and South District has 10 divisions

Women Wing Of Home Guards

There is also a women wing of the Delhi Home Guards which is directly under the charge of Commandant of Home Guards There are five companies in women's wing The strength of the companies is the same as that of men Home Guards The women volunteers are trained in home nursing, rescue, fire-fighting, fire aid, wireless and telephone operating

*Source Commandant Home Guard's, Delhi

Duties

The Delhi Home Guards has regularly assisted the police during all important occasions such as Republic Day and Independence Day celebrations, the various fairs and elections etc This organisation rendered a great service to the P & T department in 1965, Municipal Corporation and Delhi Milk Scheme during the time of their strike On many occasions when fires broke out, the Home Guards were the first to render help They have also been helping the Delhi Traffic Police in maintaining proper flow of traffic during emergencies The services or women home guards have also been utilised in hospitals in cases of emergencies and also when needed in the public interest by the police, St John Ambulance etc.

Delhi Fire Service

The Delhi Fire Brigade was under Delhi Police in 1912 but was later transferred to Delhi and New Delhi Municipal Committees However, after the outbreak of World War II, the Fire Brigade under the two municipal bodies were amalgamated into a single "Delhi Fire Service" In the year 1945, the fire service was administered by the Ministry of Health through the Chief Commissioner of Delhi Later on, the entire control was transferred to the Chief Commissioner With the formation of Municipal Croporation of Delhi in the year 1958, the administrative control was transferred to the Municipal Corporation of Delhi

The Commissioner of the Corporation exercises control over the Fire Service through the Deputy Commissioner and the Chief Fire Officer. The Chief Fire Officer is charged with the responsibility of maintaining the service in an efficient manner so as to give adequate fire protection to the entire Union Territory of Delhi

There are 13 fire stations located at various places in Delhi according to the strategic requirements and fire risk Each of the station has an officer incharge not less than a Station Officer in rank, assisted by Sub-Officer Each of the station has got no less than two fire units to attend to the fire and other emergency calls within its jurisdiction.

The Service is responsible for attending to all emergency calls due to fire, flood. accident etc. occurring in any part of Delhi

Coordination With The Police

The assistance of the police is invariably sought whenever a call is attended by the service in any area When-

ever a call of any nature is received at the fire service control, after taking appropriate action, the police control room is also simultaneously informed The police reach the scene of incident under their own arrangements, to assist the fire service in carrying out the job of fire fighting, rescue or other special service The assistance of the police at the scene of incident includes keeping the crowd under control and without interrupting the operations of the Fire Service, protection of the property while fire is being fought and other actions designed to effectively help the fire fighters In addition to this the police also are required to help the quick passage of fire engines on their way to the scene of incident and ensure that movement of the vehicles are kept un-hampered at the scene of incident

Anti-Corruption Branch

The Anti-corruption Branch was set up in 1957 as a part of the Police department The intention of the authorities in setting up the Anti-Corruption Branch was to have a specialised unit for investigation of cases relating to bribery and corruption among the employees of the Delhi Administration as well as other categories of public servants employed in the Municipal Corporation and Statutory Bodies

In March 1965, the administrative and operational control of the Anti-Corruption Branch were transferred from the Police to the Vigilance Department of the Delhi Administration In bringing the Anti-Corruption Branch under the direct control of the Administration, the intention was not to take away the powers and the responsibility of the local police with regard to investigation of corruption In fact even now the functions of the Anti-Corruption Branch is considered to be supplementary to those of the Delhi Police

The functioning of the Anti-Corruption Branch is regulated by rules framed by the Administration in 1957 These rules have been amended and brought up to date during 1971-72

Organisational Pattern

(i) *Director of Vigilance*—The Director of Vigilance, Delhi Administration is the Head of the Department for the Anti-Corruption Branch The Director of Vigilance coordinates the vigilance activities of all the departments

(ii) *Superintendent of Police*—The day to day functions of the Anti-Corruption Branch are supervised by a Superintendent of Police (Anti-Corruption Branch) It is the duty of the Supe-

rintendent of Police to supervise investigations, maintain discipline and to look after the administrative work of the Anti-Corruption Branch.

(iii) *Investigatory Staff*.—The investigatory staff in 1972 was two Deputy Superintendent of Police, six Inspectors and two Sub-Inspectors This staff conducts such enquiries and investigations as are allotted by the Superintendent of Police The two Deputy Superintendents of Police are also given the duty of supervision of simple cases.

(iv) *Prosecution Staff* —The prosecution staff consists of one Chief Prosecutor, one Sr Prosecutor and one Prosecutor Their function is to conduct prosecutions in the courts of law and to prepare such returns, statements etc, as required by the Superintendent of Police

(v) *Office Staff* —The office work is transacted by a Head Clerk, an Asstt clerk and an accountant

(vi) *Head Constables & Constables* —Head Constables and constables perform the duties of readers, clerks and typists, office orderlies and personal orderlies.

Functions Of The Anti-Corruption Branch

The jurisdiction of the Anti-Corruption Branch extends to the Delhi Administration and its local and statutory bodies

Besides Enquiries and investigations into bribery and corruption as defined by law, it also conducts enquiry and investigation of other statutory offences like theft, misappropriation, cheating and forgery etc, as defined in the *Indian Penal Code* when in such offences the employees and the property of the Delhi Administration or its local and statutory bodies is involved

Offences relating to employees of the Government of India and statutory bodies set up by the Central Government are taken up by the Special Police Establishment of the Central Bureau of Investigation. Delhi being a Union Territory, the Central Bureau of Investigation can also take up any case pertaining to the Delhi Administration and local bodies

Training

The officers posted in the Anti-Corruption Branch are on deputation from the Delhi Police and as such have received regular police training. However, the investigating officers (DSPs, Inspectors and S.Is.) are also being sent to attend the training courses organized by the Central Bureau of Investigation.

Jails And Lock-ups

Central Jail

The present Central Jail of Delhi was originally a District Jail located in the *Bhuli Bhatiari Ki Sarai* outside Delhi Gate. This old building was converted into a jail soon after the Revolt of 1857. The jail continued to be there for about a hundred years. In 1972, the Civil Surgeon was the *ex-officio* Jail Superintendent and the staff strength was one Jailor, four Assistant Jailors, forty Head Wardens and fifty Wardens etc. The jail had an accommodation for 520 male and 16 female prisoners. It had a hospital accommodation for 50 patients.

After independence, this jail was unable to cope with the increasing number of persons sentenced to imprisonment. The approach to crime also shifted from hard labour to reformative treatment. Keeping in view the requirements of the capital the jail was shifted to its new building at Tihar in 1958 and upgraded as Central Jail in the same year. The old jail premises were handed over to the Maulana Azad Medical College. There is no District or Sub-jail in Delhi and being the only jail, the Central Jail, Tihar, keeps all types of prisoners *i.e.*, convicts, undertrials, political prisoners, court prisoners, detenus of other States who are sent to Delhi for appealing before the Supreme Court of India in connection with their writ petitions. Attached to the main Central Jail, however, is a Camp Jail which is used for keeping additional prisoners in connection with political agitations.

The authorised accommodation of this jail is for 1,273 prisoners but it is always over populated having a daily average of 1,900 to 2,000 prisoners. The number of undertrials is between 800 to 900 daily while the number of admissions and release is about 50 a day. For mental patients, the jail has also two female and one male ward. This mental ward is under the charge of the Superintendent, Hospital for Mental Diseases, Shahdara.

Prior to 1966 the Tihar Jail was administered as an integral part of the Punjab Jail System by the Inspector General of Prisons, Punjab. Long term prisoners were transferred to Punjab Jails and short term prisoners of Punjab accommodated in this Jail.

The administration of the Central Jail was taken over by the Delhi Administration on 1-8-1966 from the Punjab Government. The Home Department of Delhi Administration is now

responsible for the control and management of the prison through the Inspector General of Prisons. The staff of the prison is partly locally recruited or taken from other departments of the Administration and partly on deputation from the four neighbouring States of U.P., Rajasthan, Punjab and Haryana The strength of the staff in 1972 was as below

Superintendent . .	1
Dy. Superintendent Grade-I	1
Dy. Superintendent (Grade)-II .	1
Asstt Superintendent	12
Office Superintendent .	1
Office Assistant . . .	1
Sr Accountant	1
Clerks	9
Storekeepers	2
Technical Teachers . .	3
Teacher	1
Warden Guards	212
Driver	1
Medical Officers	3
Pharmacists . . .	3
Lady Doctor (part-time) . . .	1
Dak Carrier .	1
Mali	1
Peon	1
Tractor-Driver	1

Prison Discipline.—There has been no riot or outbreak of violence or mass hunger striking in the Delhi jail The incidence of escapes has also been negligible The number of prison offences committed and punishments inflicted is negligible

Welfare of the Prisoners.—The perspective of the prison administration is now reformation and rehabilitation of the offender Welfare activities occupy an important part of the prison routine One Welfare Officer from the prison department and two from the Directorate of Social Welfare look after the problems of the prisoners and their families. A canteen is run by the prisoners where they can get their requirements like tea,

gur, sugar, biscuits, soap and oil through coupons purchased out of wages earned by them or money deposited by their relatives either at the time of interview or sent by money order

Vocational Training—In order to rehabilitate the prisoners after release, the following jail industries are functioning inside the jail where prisoners are put to work in order to get some vocational training

1 Carpentry,
2 *Niwar* Weaving,
3 *Durri* Weaving,
4 *Munj* pounding,
5 *Ban* twisting,
6 Making of soap, phenyle, candles etc,
7 *Khadi* (textile),
8 Tailoring section.

The prison has got an 84-acres farm also.* The figures of industries and farm production during 1967-73 are given below

(In Rupees)

Year	Industries produce	Farm produce
1967	3,60,111	1,01,006
1968	4,97,000	1,11,813
1969	5,25,000	1,29,536
1970	4,65,097	1,30,010
1973**	5,35,785	1,38,352

Educational Facilities—One whole-time teacher has been appointed to take literacy classes of the prisoners. He is assisted by other convict teachers Annual examinations are held by the Education Department of the Delhi Administration and

*Annual Administration Report, Delhi 1970-71

**Annual Administration Report, Delhi 1973-74

prisoners are given certificates when they qualify the examination During the year 1970-71, 188 prisoners qualified for literacy certificates.

Recreational Activities—One television set, a film projector, a radio set have been provided for the recreation of the prisoners There is also a dramatic club of the prisoners and they give performances to the prisoners on certain occasions The jail has its own band also

Board of Visitors—There are 23 (16 Non-Officials and 7 Officials) visitors nominated for a term of two years They pay visit to the jail and give suggestions for the better maintenance of the jail

Treatment of Special Class Prisoners—There are three categories of prisoners *i e*, A, B and C A and B class prisoners are kept separately and a separate kitchen has been provided for them Every A and B class prisoner is given one bed, teapoy, cup-board, bedding etc A class convict is allowed to wear his private clothings and he can also supplement his food

There are various wards to keep other prisoners in jail There is also a female ward Female convicts sentenced to more than four months are transferred to Ludhiana female jail

Juvenile Delinquents—There is a separate ward for lodging juvenile prisoners The prisoners with over four months of sentence are transferred to Borstal Institute, Faridkot A programmes of instruction and recreation for the juveniles is also provided.

Political Prisoners—There is a separate ward for the political prisoners Delhi is a metropolitan city where various agitations are launched frequently by political parties and the arrests at times go to several thousands It thus becomes very difficult to accommodate them in this jail In view of the limited accommodation, these prisoners are accommodated in the Camp Jail

Justice

On the 1st of December, 1912, the Government took over the Delhi Tahsil and Mehrauli Thana of the Ballabgarh Tahsil, an area of 528 sq miles, under direct management as an Imperial State, the rest of the old district being left to the Punjab The new enclave was put under the charge of a Chief Commissioner

The Proclamation issued under Notification No 911 dated the 17th September, 1912 reads as under

The following territory, which is now included within the Province of the Punjab, namely

> that portion of District of Delhi comprising the Tahsil of Delhi and the police station of Mehrauli, shall, on and from the first day of October, 1912, be taken under the immediate authority and management of the Governor General of India in Council and formed into a Chief Commissionership, to be called the Chief Commissionership of Delhi and the Hon'ble Mr William Malcolm Hailey, C I E I C S is hereby appointed to be the Chief Commissioner of Delhi with effect from that date

Simultaneously, the Delhi Laws Act, 1912 (Act No 13 of 1912) was enacted for the purpose of facilitating the application to the new territory or any part thereof for any enactment passed before the commencement of this Act or of any notification, order, scheme, rule, form or by-law issued, made or prescribed under any such enactment

By another royal proclamation published *vide* Notification No 984-C dated the 22nd February, 1915, about 65 revenue estates of the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh were taken under the immediate authority and management of the Governor General of India in Council, and were included in the newly created province of Delhi The Delhi Laws Act 1915 (Act No 7 of 1915) was similarly enacted for the administration of the territory taken over from the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh

The Punjab Government while protesting that the local Government (Punjab) was not given opportunity of expressing its views in the cession of Delhi territory from the Punjab, stated in its letter No 672 S/Home(G) dated 20-6-1912 to the Secretary to the Government of India, Home Department

> " What measures the Government of India propose to take to ensure the efficient administration of the people of this tract which is at present included in this Province, and to compensate the Punjab Commission for the loss of the three superior appointments of Deputy Commissioner, Divisional Judge and District Judge of the Delhi District . . .."

" .. The L G thinks that the only way in which the Delhi district could be worked with reasonable economy under the Government of India would be by retaining the jurisdiction of the Chief Court, and by recruiting the officers required for the administration from time to time from the Punjab This would not only go to meet the administrative difficulty above noted, but would also ensure that the administration of the district remained on well approved lines in the hands of men knowing the laws, rules and customs to be administered, which is infinitely more important . ...".

After the events of 1857, under the Punjab Government, Delhi was the Head Quarter district of Delhi Division under a Commissioner The judicial work of the district was supervised by the Divisional & Sessions Judge of the Delhi Civil Division The Chief Court of the Punjab was the highest court of appeal from the civil and criminal courts in Punjab including the Delhi Territory over which it had a general control and supervision Its proceedings were regulated by the civil procedure for the time being in force in Punjab During this period, Small Cause Court was also established in the Delhi District for adjudicating upon small cause cases in a less expensive and more expeditious manner Suits of the value of Rs 500/- or, if the local Government also directed to the value of Rs 1 000/- were, generally speaking, cognizable by these courts The ordinary judicial and executive-*cum*-judicial staff under the Commissioner of Delhi consisted of Deputy Commissioner, Judicial Assistant Commissioner, Assistant Commissioner, Extra Assistant Commissioner, and judges of Small Cause Courts Besides these, there were Tahsildar, Naib Tahsildars and *Munsifs*, supplemented by the benches of Hony Magistrates

The civil judiciary was under the control of the District Judge whose principal assistants were an Additional District Judge, a Sub-Judge and the Judge of the Small Cause Court, the later was assisted by a Registrar The minor or subordinate courts consisted of *Munsifs* who were mostly Revenue Officers There were two whole time *Munsifs* and generally about eight others with first, second or third class powers according to circumstances Even after becoming a separate Province under a Chief Commissioner, Delhi remained under the jurisdictional charge of the Punjab Government in the terms of the Punjab Courts Act

When the Central Government took over Delhi under their direct control and charge, they conceived that a strong administration is necessary to the maintenance of ordered rule in the newly

created but long-established capital The Government of India devised a scheme for the administration of the new Province which enabled the new administration to assume control with the least possible dislocation of the existing arrangements under the Punjab Government Apart from other recommendations to streamline the administration it evolved a better scheme for the administration of criminal and civil justice It reads as under

> 'For the purpose of district executive administration we propose a staff consisting of one Deputy Commissioner and three Assistant Commissioners The Deputy Commissioner will certainly be required permanently on the analogy of any other district charge The precise number of Assistant Commissioners who will be needed finally can only be determined in the light of experience, and for the present we propose that two of the appointments of Assistant Commissioners should be sanctioned for the period of two years with effect from the 1st October, 1912 We are satisfied that as matters now stand, these two posts are essential for the performance of the duties which we have assigned to their holders, namely, those of Additional District Magistrate and City Magistrate, respectively The first appointment is required in order to relieve the Deputy Commissioner of the bulk of his case work including criminal and revenue appeals With the changed conditions it is very necessary that the Deputy Commissioner should be in a position to give close attention to municipal and police matters, and the presence of the Supreme Government will add greatly to his miscellaneous executive duties A European City Magistrate is required for the prompt disposal of municipal and minor criminal cases — a point of much importance if municipal administration is to be efficient The third post of Assistant Commissioner is designed to carry on the existing arrangements by which an officer of this rank holds the position of Secretary to the Delhi Municipality In a town of this size and with the added importance which will now accrue to it any slackness in municipal administration will at once attract unfavourable notice and much leeway has to be made up before we can regard the state of the old city as satisfactory We propose to continue the arrangements for a period of two years at the end of which time we will consider whether the Secretaryship cannot suitably be held by a member of the Provincial Service In that event the necessary cadre adjustment will be made in consequence of the abolition of the post

The only Indian Civil Service appointment which we propose on the judicial side is the existing post of Divisional and Sessions Judge The Sessions Judge of Delhi was previously Divisional Judge for the two districts of Delhi and Gurgaon, while for the Delhi district proper the judicial staff consisted of :—

1 District Judge of the Indian Civil Service

2 Subordinate Judges

1 Small Cause Court Judge

2 Munsiffs

1 Registrar Small Cause Court

We have carefully considered the somewhat complicated question of the arrangement of judicial jurisdiction and duties in the light of the terms of the Punjab Courts Act, which do not permit for the combination of offices of Divisional and District Judges, and we are satisfied that the only feasible course is to have a separate Divisional and Sessions Judge whose jurisdiction shall be confined to the new province, while an Extra Judicial Assistant Commissioner may be appointed to be District Judge, in place of the Civilian District Judge previously employed The Divisional Judge will retain as at present administrative control of all the subordinate courts within the new province The volume of original criminal and appellate civil work which previously fell to the share of the Divisional Judge, when his jurisdiction extended over two districts will naturally be appreciably lessened but it is the intention that this officer shall now try a large proportion of the more important original civil suits which were previously heard by the Civilian District Judge, and we are satisfied that by this means the Divisional Judge and his establishment will transact approximately the same volume of business as before

Such an arrangement is consistent with the proposals which were for the amalgamation of the grades of Divisional and District Judges, in the Punjab, and the substitution of appointment of District and Sessions Judges which were submitted with our Despatch No 70 Financial, dated the 21st March, 1913, and have been sanctioned in Your Lordship's telegram, dated the 29th April, 1913

We propose that the emoluments to be drawn by all the holders of these Indian Civil Service posts shall comprise the pay or salary (including officiating allowances) to which

they would ordinarily be entitled if serving in the regular line in their own provinces, but in order to economise expenditure we suggest the following limits —

	Rs.
(a) Deputy Commissioner	2,250
(b) Divisional Judge	2,500
(c) Assistant Commissioner employed as additional District Magistrate	1,500
(d) Assistant Commissioner employed as City Magistrate	1,000
(e) Assistant Commissioner employed as secretary to the municipality	900

Under the Government of the Punjab the officer holding the last appointment used to receive a local allowance of Rs 50 a month half of which together with a moiety of his pay allowances and leave and pension contributions was recovered from the Municipal Committee We consider that these arrangements which were sanctioned, in the correspondence ending with Your Lordship's despatch No 59, dated the 29th March 1912, should be continued

The post of Deputy Commissioner will be removed from the Punjab cadre, and will become a superior appointment directly under the Government of India The post of Divisional Judge will remain on the Punjab cadre and will invariably be filled by an officer from that province, since acquaintance with the local laws to be administered will there by be ensured We will submit later our detailed proposals for the readjustment of the Punjab cadre with respect to the 3 posts of Assistant Commissioner when we are placed in possession of the views of the Punjab Government regarding administrative readjustments

The remaining executives, revenue and judicial posts which we propose for general district administration are as follows —

2 Extra Assistant Commissioners · one as treasury officer, the other for revenue work

3 Extra Judicial Assistant Commissioners one as District Judge, one as sub-Judge, and one as Small Cause Court Judge.

1 Munsiff

1 Registrar, Small Cause Court

A saving on the existing staff will thus be effected of 1-Extra Assistant Commissioner and 1 temporary Munsiff, and we are satisfied that no further reduction is possible All posts filled by officers of the Provincial, Civil and Judicial Services will be retained on the Punjab cadre, and their holders will invariably be selected from that province [1]

However, due to new administrative changes the Government Pleader and Public Prosecutor of the Delhi Civil and Sessions Division remained and continued under the control of Legal Remembrancer, Punjab

The Chief Court of the Punjab remained the highest court of appeal in civil and criminal cases till 1919, when under the Letters Patent Act of 1919, the said court was raised to High Court Under the Punjab Courts Act the judicial staff came under the administrative control of the Divisional Judge, who was designated as Senior Subordinate Judge and the Divisional Judge was to be known as District Judge Under the Punjab Courts (Amendment) Act IX of 1922, the term "Munsiff" as the title of the lowest grade of civil court was abolished and graded with Subordinate Judges

During the year 1913 the Judiciary consisted of

1 District and Sessions Judge

1 Senior Sub-Judge

1 Judge Small Cause Court

1 Registrar, Small Cause Court

3 Sub-Judges.

There was also a court of an Hony Sub-Judge Due to the rapid increase of the cases in the Subordinate Courts, two more Courts of Sub-Judges were added to the existing strength during the year 1920 The Civil Courts had not suitable accommodation of its own During the year 1924 some efforts were initiated in this direction and finally in the year 1927 the civil courts found place in old cutchery building inside Kashmire Gate However, the courts were shifted to new building at Tis Hazari during the year 1958

[1] *Home Deptt Proceedings Sept* 1912 (*C C office*)

The institution of suits continued to rise and the two courts of Sub-Judges created temporarily in 1920 were made permanent in 1925 The permanent strength of Sub-Judges thus rose from 6 to 8 The institution of suits in 1920 was 7,490 and it rose to 9,863 in 1926 The institution of suits continued to rise steadily and during the year 1933 it touched the figure of 11,102 However it fell to 9 302 in the year 1934 due to depression in trade but rose again in the subsequent years

There was an important event in the history of judiciary at Delhi during the year 1936 when the system of employing unpaid candidates in courts was abolished and now paid candidates were employed to assist the *Ahlmads* Another notable change that took place in the same year was that the Process Serving Agency work which was hitherto under the administrative charge of the Senior Sub Judge was transferred under the administrative control of the Administrative Sub-Judge The change was effected to improve the efficiency of the Process Serving Agency During the next five years *viz* 1934 to 1939, there had been no increase in the institution and the suits The strength of the Subordinate Judges during the period of 1934 to 1939 had been as under

1 Senior Sub-Judge

1 Judge Small Cause Court

1 Additional Judge, Small Cause Court

4 Subordinate Judges

1 Registrar, Small Cause Court

During the years 1938-39 there had been abnormal rise in civil appeals in the District Judge's Court A post of an Additional District Judge was created during the year 1939 for a period of 4 months to clear the backlog of the arrears

There was somehow abnormal rise in land litigation cases during the years 1938 to 1941 due to extension of U P Town Improvement Trust Act to Delhi The said Act was enforced during the year 1938 The Act envisaged a better planned development of the Delhi City

The institution of civil suits in the subordinate courts was on a gradual decline The figures were 8,729 in 1939 and 5 698 in 1945 This fall may be attributed to general depression in trade due to World War II

The year 1946 showed signs of increase in institution as the War had ended and India was entering into a new phase of life Due to the partition of the country and exchange of population in 1947 certain new acts were introduced Thousands of suits were instituted under the Displaced Persons Debt Adjustment Act These suits were in the first instance dealt with by the Sub-Judges as Tribunals under the Act but when the number of suits became large a separate Tribunal was created in 1951 and another in 1953 to deal with these cases These Tribunals continued to function till October 1955 when they were abolished and their work was distributed among Sub-Judges exercising 1st Class powers

The year 1948 witnessed the enforcement of Delhi Ajmer, Marwar Rent Control Act, and one more court of a Sub-Judge was created The said court was exclusively meant for Rent Control Act The volume of the work increased day by day necessitating to make it permanent during the year 1953

Towards the close of the year 1949 pending files in the subordinate civil courts swelled to more than 4 000 against the normal pending files of 2 000, and to bring it down, eight temporary courts of Sub-Judges were created in the beginning of the year 1950 In November 1951, two temporary courts were abolished The pending files swelled again in 1953 and went up to 11,306 The number of old suits also increased and was 2,142 in June 1953 Six temporary courts of Sub-Judges were therefore created in October 1953 to relieve the existing courts of the burden of work and reduce the number of old cases In 1959, the strength consisted of 21 Sub-Judges, as two temporary courts were abolished

The pending files in the District Judge's Court also went up to 2,159 at the close of the year 1950 and three more courts of Additional District and Sessions Judges were created The strength in 1959 was one District & Sessions Judge and four Additional District & Sessions Judges

Civil And Criminal Courts

Civil Justice

Consequent upon the new set-up of Union Territory of Delhi, appointment of Lt Governor in place of Chief Commissioner and the passage of the Delhi High Court Act, 1966 by the Parliament, two new judicial services, namely, (i) Delhi Higher Judicial Service, and (ii) Delhi Judicial Service, came into being on 27th

August, 1970 under the Notification Nos F 1/1/70-Judl (I) and F 1/1/70-Judl (II) respectively The former is now manned by officers appointed as District and Sessions Judge and Additional District and Sessions Judge and Rent Control Tribunal The appointment to these services is made by promotion of the officers of Delhi Judicial Service Not more than one third officers are appointed directly from the Bar The selection is made by the Delhi High Court on the basis of which the Administrator Lt Governor of Delhi makes appointments

Delhi Judicial Service comprises of officers who work both on civil and criminal side and include Judicial Magistrates and Sub-Judges and Rent Controllers The appointment to these services is made by the Administrator of Delhi on the basis of merit list prepared after holding an examination by the Delhi High Court The Delhi High Court is vested with the overall supervision and control over the subordinate courts in regard to promotion and other matters.

In 1972 the strength of Delhi Judicial Service was 112 and that of Delhi Higher Judicial Service 16

The following classes of civil courts functioned in the Union Territory of Delhi in 1972

(1) Court of District Judge,

(2) Courts of Additional District Judges,

(3) Courts of Subordinate Judges, and

(4) Courts of Small Causes

Apart from the above courts Controllers under the Delhi Rent Control Act also function The appeals against their orders lie to the Rent Control Tribunal

The District/Additional District Judges and the Rent Control Tribunal belong to Delhi Higher Judicial Service, while the officers presiding over other courts mentioned above belong to the Delhi Judicial Service

Appeals against the judgments, decrees and orders up to Rs 10 000 lie to the District/Additional District Judges The matrimonial cases and references under the Land Acquisition Act are tried by the Additional District Judges on the original side

Senior Subordinate Judge also exercises the powers of appeal in suits of the value not exceeding Rs 1,000 and also in land suits of the value not exceeding Rs 250 apart from unclassed suits of the value not exceeding Rs 500

Judge, Small Cause Court, exercises powers to try suits not exceeding Rs 1 000 in value

Appendix III shows the number and nature of cases handled by the various courts during the year 1971

Criminal Justice—According to Delhi District Gazetteer (1912), the District Magistrate was responsible for the administration of criminal justice, being chief magistrate and supervisor of the police as far as their duties related to crime The staff in 1910 consisted of:

	Stipendiary	Honorary
First Class Magistrates	8	1
Second Class Magistrates	1	14
Third Class Magistrates	3	1

One of the first class magistrates had always the powers of District Magistrate to enable him to try serious cases, and thus the District Magistrate and Sessions Judge's Court were relieved of undesirable strain

The honorary magistrates were all but two located in Delhi itself where they usually sat as a bench for the trial of minor offences (chiefly assault cases) which occurred within the city

A bench consisting of a Hindu and a Muhammadan with Second Class powers, was constituted for Raisina (New Delhi) in 1912 to deal with cases within the limits of the Imperial Delhi Municipal Committee to which the exercise of their powers was confined

The Najafgarh Bench of two magistrates with Third Class powers was constituted in 1921, having the power throughout the province

During 1926, there were two 1st Class honorary magistrates at Delhi, one of whom had Section 30 powers The jurisdiction of both extended to the Delhi Districts There was in addition, one Second Class honorary magistrate (as also the Sub-Registrar) at Delhi municipal limits.

The comparative magisterial strength of criminal courts in the Union Territory of Delhi during 1951 and 1961 was as follows

	1951	1961
District Magistrate	1	1
Additional District Magistrate	1	3
Stipendiary Magistrates	13	24
Honorary Magistrates	11	27

Out of 27 honorary magistrates functioning in 1961, ten were exercising the powers of 1st Class Magistrates and rest were exercising the powers of Magistrate 2nd Class In 1964-65 there were three Additional District Magistrates The cases instituted numbered to 2 01 906 The institution of honorary magistrates was abolished in Delhi in October 1969 The magisterial strength in 1972 consisted of District Magistrate three Additional District Magistrates and 12 Sub-Divisional Magistrates

Mobile Courts—The system of mobile magistrates was introduced in the year 1952 In 1959 there were five mobile magistrates whose duties were to try cases under the Motor Vehicles Act and other traffic rules and byelaws on the spot

Juvenile Courts—It was in the year 1942 that the first part-time juvenile court was set up with the City Magistrate as the Presiding Officer The court used to meet in the City Magistrate's Court room once a week Later, in 1943, the Resident Magistrate was appointed as Juvenile Court Magistrate in place of the City Magistrate and the court room for juvenile cases shifted to a special room outside the then District Jail at Mathura Road where every Thursday juvenile court sessions were held In 1948 a lady magistrate was appointed and the juvenile cases were transferred to her In 1956 a second juvenile court was set up Thus now there are two juvenile courts (both presided by the lady magistrates) holding session on alternative days so that every day there is a sitting of juvenile court

Separation Of Executive And Judiciary

The judiciary of the Union Territory of Delhi was separated from the Executive in October, 1969 under the Union Territories (Separation of Judicial and Executive Functions) Act, 1969 The Act provides for two classes of criminal courts, namely, the Courts of Sessions and

the Courts of Magistrates The latter consists of Judicial Magistrates including the Chief Judicial Magistrate and the Judicial Magistrate of the 1st and 2nd Class and the Executive Magistrates including the District Magistrate Sub-Divisional Magistrate, Executive Magistrate of the First and the Second Class and the special Executive Magistrates. Magistrates Third Class have been done away with Prior to the separation of Judicial and executive functions, the entire magistracy used to function under the direct control of the District Magistrate of Delhi Under the new set-up the Judicial Magistrates have been placed under the direct control of the High Court and the Chief Judicial Magistrate exercises most of the powers under the Criminal Procedure Code previously exercisable by the District Magistrate

For the proper implementation of the scheme of separation, Section-5 of the Criminal Procedure Code as amended by Act 19 of 1969 has streamlined the sphere of duties of both the Judicial and Executive Magistrates The Judicial Magistrates are to deal with the matters which involve the appreciation or shifting of evidence or the formulation of any decision which exposes any person to any punishment or penalty or detention in custody pending investigation, enquiry or trial or would have the effect of sending him for trial before any court But where such functions relate to matters which are administrative or executive in nature, such as the grant of a licence, the suspension or cancellation of licences, sanctioning a prosecution or withdrawing from a prosecution, they fell within the purview of an executive magistrate In brief an Executive Magistrate deals with matters concerning law and order and with preventive measures confining to the provisions of sections 107, 109, 110, 133, 144, 145 Cr P C, while offences, under I P C, special or local laws, including petty offences are all triable by Judicial Magistrates

Heinous crimes and other serious offences are triable by the court of sessions after their commitment by the concerned Judicial Magistrate after an enquiry All other offences are triable by the Judicial Magistrates and their decisions and orders are challengeable by way of appeal or revision before the Court of Sessions or the High Court, as the case may be

On the eve of separation, the number of pending criminal cases was 30,461, including 11,358 cases of violation of traffic laws pending in four Traffic Courts at Kashmire Gate But in March, 1972, the number of pending traffic violations increased to 1,35,182 Prior to the separation, the institution of honorary magistrates, which has been abolished, used to work as mobile

traffic courts, disposing of a large number of challans for the regular traffic courts for disposal The huge accumulation of traffic violations has attracted the attention of the High Court and of the Administration and steps are being taken to reduce this accumulation to the minimum possible by spreading over the arrears amongst other regular criminal courts for their prompt disposal Other pending criminal cases under various sections of the I P C, and under special and local laws are in no way less in number Amongst this category of cases, theft cases including theft of vehicles, cattle and other property take the lead followed by accidents and excise cases Cases of hurt also do not lag much behind Efforts are also made to reform the offender in as much as provisions of Probation of Offenders Act are liberally utilized and in case the offender is found guilty, he is released on probation of good conduct on furnishing a personal bond with surety to be of good behaviour and to keep peace during the period and thus he is kept away from the hard criminal in Jail Similarly under the provisions of the Children's Act the juvenile offenders below the age of 16 years are dealt with by the Children's Court and are never sent to lockup or to jail but are kept in Remand Home

Panchayati Adalats

Besides the civil and criminal courts, Panchayati Adalats in the rural areas have also been formed under the Delhi Panchayat Raj Act to make better provision for a cheaper and speedy disposal of local petty matters Petty offences of theft where value of property does not exceed Rs 50 and other petty offences under the Indian Penal Code, Delhi Gambling Act and under any other enactments, punishable with fine only up to a limit of Rs 100/- are triable by the Panchayati Adalat No Panchayati Adalat shall inflict a substantive sentence or imprisonment, nor impose a fine exceeding Rs 100/- and no imprisonment even in default of payment Further no Panchayati Adalat shall try any criminal case against a public servant or against a previous convict or bound over to be of good behaviour under Section 109/110 Cr P C In any criminal case before the Panchayati Adalat, if an accused is acquitted or discharged and the Panchayati Adalat comes to a decision that accusation against him was false or frivolous, then it may, after a show cause notice to the complainant, direct him to pay compensation not exceeding Rs 25, to the accused A Panchayati Adalat can also punish any person who intentionally offers any insult to a Panchayati Adalat or any member thereof while the Panchayati Adalat is sitting in any stage of judicial proceedings

and it may at any time before rising on the same day take cognizance of the offence and sentence the offender to a fine not exceeding Rs 5 But no conviction by a Panchayati Adalat shall be deemed to be a previous conviction for the purpose of section 75 of the Indian Penal Code or section 3 of the Probation of Offenders Act Not only criminal cases but petty civil and revenue cases are also triable by the Panchayati Adalat of the circle concerned Thus some load of case work is shared by the Panchayati Adalat in the administration of justice to the poor and needy, which otherwise would have further burdened the regular courts, to the much inconvenience and expense to the rural public

Delhi High Court

Although Delhi had been made a separate province as far back as October 1912, it was still an outlying district of the Punjab in certain respects Its association with the High Court of Punjab constituted an important link with the Punjab Province This link dates back to the time the British annexed Punjab and decided to give a well-organised judicial system to this part of the country The first step towards this goal was taken in 1865 when the Chief Court Act, 1865, was passed and the Provinces of Punjab and Delhi were made subject to the jurisdiction of the Court The Chief Court Act, 1865, was however, superseded by Chief Court Act, 1866, as the former Act had been passed before the Secretary of State for India's sanction was received by the Government of India and thus had no force of law Under the Chief Court Act, 1866, Mr A A Roberts, Judicial Commissioner and Mr Charles Boulnois, Barrister-at-law, became judges of the Chief Court Thereafter several laws were enacted for appointment of permanent and temporary judges in the Chief Court and for bringing about changes in the heirarchy of the subordinate courts A major change occurred in 1919, when under the Letters Patent, the Chief Court was raised to the status of a High Court of Judicature This Court also exercised jurisdiction over the Provinces of Punjab and Delhi After the partition of the country in 1947, the East Punjab High Court/Punjab High Court administered justice in the aforesaid territories

The public and the Bar of Delhi felt the necessity of a Circuit Bench at Delhi, and a request in this behalf was made to the late Sir Shadi Lal, Chief Justice of the Punjab High Court, on the occasion of his inspection tour of Delhi Courts in 1920 The question of establishment of a Circuit Court for Delhi was mooted with the Government of India in the year 1924 The Delhi public and Bar had been unanimously pressing for it since a very long

time The demand was pressed with greater urgency after the partition of India A steep rise in the tempo of litigation ignited by the growing consciousness among the public of its constitutional and legal rights after it had tasted the fruit of independence—compelled with the consequent shifting of the High Court at Simla were some of the important factors which lent heavy weight to the demand for establishment of a Circuit Bench at Delhi The Central Government fully convinced by the changed circumstances and situation, took the matter in right earnest with the then Chief Justice Mr Eric Weston, and ultimately the Circuit Bench was established in Delhi in early 1952

In the beginning there was no suitable accommodation for housing the Circuit Bench and the Udaipur House at 15, Rajpur Road was acquired as a temporary measure It contained only one court-room and two chambers while there was a need for at least two court-rooms and two chambers for the Judges Meanwhile the volume of work in the Circuit Court continued to increase and so the size of the Circuit The Judges of the Punjab High Court requested the Government of India for a more commodious building preferably in New Delhi and ultimately in September 1964 the Court shifted to 4-Maulana Azad Road, New Delhi Then as many as five Judges began to rotate on Circuit throughout the year

The phenomenal growth of population as well as litigation prompted the Delhi Bar to ask for a separate High Court for Delhi The political demand for bifurcation of the State of Punjab into Punjab and Haryana States lent further strength to it A Bill for the purpose was introduced in Parliament in 1965 and the Statement of Objects and Reasons as it appears at page 1189 of the Government of India Gazette Extraordinary, dated 6-12-65 part-II Section 2, reads

> "Under the existing arrangement a Circuit Bench of the Punjab High Court functions in Delhi to deal with the High Court cases arising in the Union Territory of Delhi and the Delhi Administration is paying to the Punjab Government the actual cost of the Circuit Bench in Delhi and also the

proportionate cost on account of the High Court at Chandigarh This arrangement is not very satisfactory and the question of having a separate High Court for Delhi has been under consideration for some time past The volume of work in Delhi has been on the increase and is likely to increase further Having regard to the importance of Delhi, its growing population and other considerations, it is proposed to have a separate High Court for Delhi This would also facilitate the implementation of the scheme for separation of the judiciary from the executive in the Union Territory of Delhi At the same time the cost of the new High Court may not exceed the expense incurred at present

2 It is also proposed to extend the jurisdiction of the new High Court of Delhi to the Union Territory of Himachal Pradesh and abolish the court of the Judicial Commissioner there It is further proposed that the new High Court should have original civil jurisdiction in respect of suits the value of which exceeds Rs 25 000 "

The Delhi High Court Act, 1966 was passed by the Parliament in the seventeenth year of the Republic of India and the High Court for the Union Territory of Delhi came into being with effect from 31st October, 1966 Mr Justice K S Hegde of the Mysore High Court was appointed its first Chief Justice He and Mr Justice I D Dua, Mr Justice H R Khanna and Mr Justice S K Kapur of the Punjab High Court took oath of office on 31st October, 1966 The judge-strength of the Delhi High Court was raised from time to time and in April, 1973 it comprised of 13 permanent and six additional judges

By virtue of the provisions contained in Section 5(1) and 5(2) of the Delhi High Court Act, 1966, (as amended up to date), this Court exercises original, appellate and other jurisdiction as was exercisable by the High Court of Punjab in respect of the Union Territory of Delhi before its establishment and has also ordinary original civil jurisdiction in every suit, the value of which exceeds Rs 50,000/-.

The pending files of this Court as it stood on 30-10-66 was 8,702 whereas on 1-1-1973 it was 16,561 The Table enumerated below gives a year-wise institution and disposal of cases from 1966 to 1972

Year	Institution	Disposal
1966	11,749	9,693
1967	17,006	12,912
1968	15,805	13,537
1969	15,900	16,567
1970	6,975	18,094
1971	16,873	17,885
1972	16,174	14,980

Supreme Court

The Supreme Court of India formerly known as Federal Court of India which was transferred to Delhi in 1938, has appellate jurisdiction in both civil and criminal cases involving substantial question of law as to the interpretation of the Constitution Appeals also lie to the Supreme Court in civil matters when the amount of value of the subject matter of the dispute is not less than Rs 20,000 or where the judgment decrees or final order involves claims respecting property of like amount or where the High Court concerned satisfies that the case is a fit one for appeal to the Supreme Court

In criminal cases, the appeal lies to the Supreme Court if the High Court (a) has on an appeal reversed an order of acquittal of an accused person and sentenced him to death/for life imprisonment or imprisonment for ten years (b) has withdrawn for trial before itself any case from any court subordinate to its authority and has in such case convicted the accused and sentenced him either to death or life imprisonment or ten years imprisonment and (c) has certified that the case is a fit one for appeal to the Supreme Court

Legal Profession And Bar Associations

Bar Association Of Delhi

The idea of Bar Library was first mooted in 1888 and the District Bar Library was registered under Act XXI of 1860 through the efforts of Mr Samuel Clifford Besides the District Bar Library, there was another society called the Bar Room which was formed in about 1892 All members of the District Bar Library were also members of the Bar Room while members of the Bar Room could become members of the District Bar Library on payment of a special subscription These two societies were officially amalgamated in January 1915 as the Bar Association of Delhi and was registered under Act XXI of 1860 (as amended in 1944)

Bar Association Of India

The Bar Association of India was formed and registered in 1959 In December, 1972, the number of the members on the rolls of this Association was about 200 The Association has its main office in one of the rooms in the Supreme Court building in New Delhi It also publishes a journal

Supreme Court Bar Association

Previously there was Bar Association of the Federal Court of India which was registered in 1947 On the setting up of the Supreme Court of India in the year 1950, the said Association became the Bar Association of the Supreme Court of India The present Bar Association was registered in the year 1958 The number of members on the rolls of this Association was about 800 in December, 1972

Delhi High Court Bar Association

The Bar Association of the Circuit Bench of the Punjab High Court became the Bar Association of the High Court of Delhi in 1966 The number of members on roll of this Association was about 560 in December 1972 The election of its office bearers is held in the month of May every year

Bar Association Of The District Courts

This Association is registered under the Societies Registration Act The number of members on its rolls was 1,672 in December, 1972 The election of its office bearers is also held every year in the month of May.

APPENDIX I

Strength of Delhi Police (1951-1961)

As on 31st December of	I G	D I G	S Ps	P R O	A S Ps	D S Ps	Inspers	S I	A S I	H C	Const
1951	1		8	1	1	21	54	228	378	1,132	6,202
1953	1		9	1	1	21	55	325	418	1,432	7,778
1954	1		9	1	1	21	56	321	426	1,416	7,778
1955	1		9	1	1	22	55	321	426	1,416	7,778
1956	1	1	8	1	1	23	56	323	426	1,421	7,804
1957	1	1	10	1	1	27	69	345	474	1,142	7,983
1958	1	1	11	1	1	31	76	386	503	1,505	8,250
1959	1	1	12	1	4	31	80	415	593	1,584	8,809
1960	1	1	11	1	2	34	78	409	585	1,605	8,925
1961	1	1	11	1	4	34	84	456	632	1,686	9,226

Source *District Census Handbook*, 1961 P 27

APPENDIX III

Nature and number of cases tried by Courts in Delhi — —1971

Nature of Case	Balance as on 1-1-71	Institution	Disposal	Pending as on 31-12-71
1	2	3	4	5
Civil appeals	440	491	480	451
Regular suits	15,316	11,275	8,837	17,804
Hindu Marriage Act cases	621	776	725	672
Applications u/s 24 H M Act .	16	49	44	2
Election petitions .	1	24	8	17
Trust Cases	39	5	40	4
Probate Cases	89	126	98	117
Liquidation cases	1	..	1	..
D P Act cases	29	2	2	29
Lunancy cases	3	6	5	4
Misc Company Act cases .	28	44	47	25
Rent Control appeals . .	1,309	1,231	1,212	1,296
Guardianship cases	103	215	237	71
M C D /P P E and H T A	557	869	808	318
Arbitration cases . .	74	53	13	114
Wakf Act cases . . .	1	4	2	3
Sales Tax revisions . .	..	33	28	5
Regular executions .	3,194	5,846	5,255	3,785
Small Cause suits . .	3,625	4,509	4,622	3,522
Small Cause executions . .	1,234	2,092	1,999	1,327
Misc appeals .	817	866	815	868
ESIC cases	63	44	70	37
ESIC execution . . .	69	83	85	67

APHENDIX III—*Contd*

1	2	3	4	5
Insolvency cases .	82	52	70	64
Payment of Wages Act cases	82	35	39	78
Minimum Wages Act cases	17	6	4	19
Workmen Compensation Act cases	69	105	101	73
Receiver Ship Act cases .	37	11	12	36
Shops and Establishment Act cases	146	102	75	173
Successions Act cases	595	750	633	712
Applications u/s 161 BDLR .	115	..	88	27
Land Acquisition cases u/s 18	4,456	1,828	1,360	4,924
Land Acquisition cases u/s 30/31 .	788	242	255	275
Sessions cases u/s 302 IPC .	16	81	74	23
Sessions cases u/s 30 Cr P C	324	317	570	71
Criminal appeals .	558	1,025	1,175	408
Jail appeals . .	2	139	138	1
Criminal revisions .	310	617	781	216
Corruption cases . .	86	139	129	96
Police challans .	11,135	71,470	67,925	14,680
Traffic	70,216	1,42,293	90,762	1,21,747
Complaints . .	30,913	65,145	55,312	40,714

Source District & Sessions Judge Delhi

CHAPTER XIII

OTHER DEPARTMENTS

Besides administrative departments, dealt within Chapters X, XI, XII, XV, XVI & XVII, there are some other departments also functioning under Delhi Administration, more important of which are the Directorate of Transport, Food and Supplies Department, Directorate of Employment and Training, Directorate of Information & Publicity Development Department Public Works Department Directorate of Industries and Cooperative Societies Department

Directorate Of Transport

The Directorate of Transport was established in 1950 for the enforcement of the Motor Vehicles Act 1939 and rules made thereunder, and to recover road tax under the provisions of Delhi Motor Vehicles Taxation Act, 1962 Prior to this, all work relating to transport was done by the Petrol Rationing Authority under the administrative control of the Deputy Commissioner The Director of Transport, who is head of the department, is also exercising the powers of the Controller of Motor Cars and Scooters under the Car and Scooter Control Order, 1966 He is also holding charge of the post of the Special Secretary (Transport), Delhi Administration

The functions of the Directorate include collection of road tax registration of vehicles, issue of regular and temporary permits issue and renewal of driving and conductors' licences authorisation to drive public service vehicles, issue of international driving permits under the Motor Vehicles International Circulation Rules, 1933, registration of Corps Diplomatique Vehicles and issue of driving licences to the staff of the embassies, inspection of motor vehicles and issue of certificates of fitness, reciprocal transport agreements with other States, according permission to sell cars and scooters before the expiry of two years in relaxation of the provisions of the Car and Scooter Control Order, and permission to take delivery of the car/scooter in Delhi against booking in other States, extension of time limit for the purchase of car/scooter after the expiry of specified time, allotment of cars for taxi trade from the taxi quota and the discretionary quota, allotment of cars/scooters from Government quota and allotment of three wheelers to drivers for replacement of old vehicles.

The Director is assisted in his work by a Joint Director a Deputy Director, apart from one D S P. (enforcement), a technical officer and six motor vehicle inspectors. The Deputy Superintendent (Police), who is in charge of a unit consisting of police officials assists the Director in keeping proper checks in cases of overcharging etc by scooter and taxi drivers

Food & Supplies Department

The origin of the Civil Supplies and Rationing Department in Delhi may be traced to World War-II A beginning in this direction was made with the setting up of a Commodity Control Organisation sometime in 1942 As this Organisation was not adequate to deal with the situation then obtaining, rationing was introduced in Delhi for the first time in 1944 A separate parallel organisation for the enforcement of various control orders, known as 'Civil Supplies' was also set up simultaneously Since rationing and civil supplies were to function as *supplementary* to each other, both the departments were placed under a common head of department

Rationing in Delhi continued till 1952 It was abolished in February, 1954 The department was finally closed down in 1955 and the various outstanding items of work were transferred to the Civil Supplies Department which was re-organised to deal effectively with various measures of controls that continued to remain in force even after the abolition of rationing The department was named as Directorate of Food & Civil Supplies A system of fair price shops, which was to function alongwith the free market in essential commodities was adopted in Delhi to ensure supplies at resonable prices to the weaker sections of the public Apart from the control exercised over the fair price shops, the Civil Supplies Department was also charged with the enforcement of various licencing control orders issued from time to time under the Essential Commodities Act 1955 Statutory rationing in foodgrains and sugar was again introduced in Delhi from 8th December 1965, which was lifted in 1968 The department also regulates the distribution of essential items like cement, iron, bricks, kerosene coal and vegetable oils etc, whenever these commodities are in short supply in open market

The Department of Food and Supplies, as re-organised in 1968 is functioning under the Commissioner of Food and Supplies who is head of the department as well as ex-officio Secretary of the Delhi Administration in respect of this department

The Commissioner is assisted by three Deputy Commissioners namely, administration, distribution and supplies and by four Civil Supplies Officers

In March, 1971, 1670 fair price shops were functioning in the Union Territory of Delhi These were being controlled by fifteen circle offices under the Food and Supplies Officers, who were further assisted by a number of inspectors and requisite ministerial staff The number of licences issued by the department for various articles as on 31st March, 1972, were as follows

1	Wholesale food grain licences	1077
2	Retail foodgrain licences	8100
3	Wholesale sugar licences (levy)	188
4	Wholesale sugar licences (free sale)	203
5	Automobile tyre tubes licences	211
6	Cycle, cycle-rickshaw tyre & tube licences	599
7	Hydrogenated vegetable oil agents	10
8	Hydrogenated vegetable oil wholesale licences	134
9	Kerosene oil agents and dealers	2503
10	Hydrogenated vegetable oil retail licences	3498
11	Brick-kiln licences	200
12	Coal import licences	220
13	Cotton licences	371

The various control orders which the department has to implement at present (1972) include

1 Delhi Brickfield Rules, 1941

2 The East Punjab Control of Brick Supplies Act, 1949

3 Imported Foodgrains (Prohibition of Unauthorised Sales) Order, 1958

4 Delhi Salt (Manufacture Movement and Price) Control Order, 1960

5 The Delhi Kerosene Oil (Export & Price) Control Order, 1962

6 The Delhi Bricks (Distribution, Sale, Movement and Price) Control Order, 1963

7 The Delhi Coal Control Order, 1963

8 Delhi Foodgrain Dealers Licensing (No 2) Order, 1964.

9 The Kerosene (Restriction on Uses) Order, 1964
10 Wheat Roller Flour Mills (Licensing and Control) Order, 1965
11 Delhi Roller Mills Wheat Products (ex-mill and retail) Price Control Order, 1965
12 The Foodgrains (Prohibition of use in the manufacture of Starch) Order, 1965
13 Delhi Prevention of Hoarding of Foodgrain Order, 1966
14 The Sugar (Control) Order, 1966 and Orders issued thereunder
15 The Delhi Hydrogenated Vegetable Oils Dealers Licensing (No 2) Order, 1966
16 Delhi (Display of Prices & Stocks of Essential Commodities) Order, 1966
17 The Kerosene (Fixation of Ceiling Prices) Order, 1966
18 Delhi Foodstuffs (Regulation of Storage in Cold Storages) Order, 1967
19 The Cement Control Order, 1967
20 The Delhi Cycle Tyres & Tubes Control Order, 1967
21 Delhi Specified Food Articles (Regulation of Distribution) Order, 1968
22 Delhi Guest Control Order, 1968
23 The Delhi Sugar Dealers Licensing Order, 1968
24 The Delhi Cars & Tractor Tyres and Tubes Control Order, 1967
25 The Delhi Scooters Tyres & Tubes Control Order, 1968
26 Delhi Automobile Tyre & Tubes Control Order, 1969

Employment And Training Department

The Department has two wings **viz**, Training and Employment The Directorate of Employment and Training is headed by a Director, who is assisted by a Joint Director, two Assistant Directors (Employment Exchanges) and an Asstt Director (Training) besides other staff He is also the Director of Technical Education, Secretary of the Board of Technical Education and the Apprenticeship Advisor The Director is also ex-officio Secretary to the Administration for the departments under his control.

Employment Service

The employment service came into being in India under the stress of post-war demobilisation, when it was felt to have a machinery that would satisfactorily reabsorb in civil life, a large number of service personnel and war workers who were to be released Accordingly, a Directorate General of Resettlement and Employment was created in July, 1945, and employment exchanges were gradually opened in several parts of the country Till the end of 1946 employment service facilities were available only to demobilised service personnel and discharged war workers In 1947, the scope of the employment exchanges expanded and covered a large number of persons who were displaced as a result of the partition In response to the growing demand, the scope of the service was gradually expanded and by early 1948 employment exchanges were thrown open to all category of workers In November, 1956, day to day administration of the employment exchanges was handed over to the Delhi Administration

Prior to 1960 there was only one employment exchange in the whole of the Union Territory of Delhi With the rapid expansion of Delhi and the rise of population, the employment service in Delhi was decentralised in 1960 and more employment exchanges were opened year after year In 1971, nineteen employment exchanges of various forms and sizes were functioning in Delhi These include one special employment exchange for physically handicapped persons which registers blind, deaf, dumb and orthopaedically handicapped persons sponsored by institutions for the handicapped or those who have studied in recognised schools/institutions or have job/industrial experience

Unlike other State/Union Territories the employment exchanges in Delhi are working on functional basis They cater for specific categories of jobs and also the job seekers The following statement shows the activities of the employment exchanges during 1961 and 1970

Year	Registration	Live register	Vacancies notified	Submission made	Placings
1961	88,528	61,562	20,066	90,456	8,056
1970	1,55,511	1,32,645	37,570	1,64,609	29,658

Besides employment exchanges, a Commercial and Secretarial Institute is also functioning under the Employment Wing The institute imparts both full time and part time training in salesmanship, storekeeping, accountancy, typewriting, and English and general knowledge

Training Wing

The training scheme was started as a technical scheme during the year 1941-42, for the war time requirements of defence industries After the Second World War, this scheme was geared to provide vocational training to the ex-servicemen who were retrenched from the armed forces and were required to be rehabilitated and employed The administrative control of this scheme was handed over by the Central Government to Delhi Administration in November, 1956 The seating capacity of industrial training institutes was raised from 784 to 2580 during the Second Plan and subsequently to 5348 by the end of Third Plan, 258 seats were added in 1966-67 The objectives of the training are to upgrade the level of competency of the existing institutions with a view to meet the higher technological requirements of the industries, to ensure a steady flow of skilled workers in different trades, to raise the quality and quantity of industrial production by systematic training of workers and to reduce unemployment among educated youth by equipping them for suitable industrial employment For this purpose, seven Industrial training institutes (including one for women) are functioning in different zones in the Union Territory of Delhi where the training is being imparted free of cost

Directorate Of Information And Publicity

The Directorate of Public Relations was set up in 1952 with one Director and one Assistant Director to publicise Five Year Plan programmes and activities of Delhi Administration In 1970, the Directorate of Public Relations was reorganised and designated as the Directorate of Information and Publicity The main functions of the Directorate are to organise publicity of policies and programmes and other developmental activities of the Administration through the media of press, radio, television film shows, exhibitions etc and to inform the Administration about the public reactions to its policies as reflected in the press and other publicity media

The Directorate consists of four different wings viz Information & Publicity, Public Relations, Exhibition and Films and Administration The re-organised set-up consists of one Director

with one Deputy Director, six Information Officers, two Assistant Information Officers and three Publicity Officers, besides other technical and ministerial staff. The Directorate has established an information centre at Chandralok Building, Janpath

The press office which was formely a part of the Public Relations Directorate was separated from it and amalgamated in the Home Department of the Delhi Administration

Development Department

Prior to introduction of community development and national extension services programme the activities connected with agriculture, animal husbandry, and panchayat departments were under the administrative control of the Deputy Commissioner, Delhi

The First Five Year Plan laid great stress on rural development and with a view to effectively coordinating the activities of all the development departments working in the rural area the Development Department came into existence with the creation of a post of Development Commissioner in 1953 The Development Commissioner, who is also *ex-officio* Secretary (Development) is administratively responsible for the activities in the field of agriculture, animal husbandry, cooperation, soil conservation, afforestation, panchayats, sludge distribution etc He also coordinates the activities of industries, education, health and sanitation departments etc, as far as their working in the rural area of Delhi is concerned

Organisational Set up

In 1962, the Development Department was reorganised into following four units

I Agriculture, soil conservation, forestry, horticulture, manure and sludge distribution and minor irrigation,

II Animal husbandry, poultry and fisheries,

III Co-operatives,

IV Administration including panchayats

Except for a little change in the working of the Cooperative Department, this set up continues functioning upto this time In 1965, with the creation of the post of Registrar of Cooperative Societies as Head of Department and *ex-officio* Special Secretary,

Cooperative Department was separated from the Development Department However, Development Commissioner remains as Secretary (Cooperation) The functions and achievements in brief of the four units of this department are as follows

Agriculture And Irrigation Unit

This unit is responsible for activities in the fields of agriculture, including horticulture community development, soil conservation and forestry and applied nutrition programme

This office is headed by a Joint Director (Agriculture) assisted at the headquarter by a number of subject matter specialists in agronomy, seed development, plant protection, fruit and vegetable, applied nutrition etc

Since the introduction of intensive agricultural development programme in 1952 functions of this office and the services rendered have been enlarged considerably Some of the main functions and services rendered by this office are

(1) Spreading of scientific knowledge among the farmers through demonstrations and organisation of farmers training camps,

(2) Production and distribution of improved seeds,

(3) Distribution of chemical fertilizers and sludge,

(4) Distribution of improved agricultural implements and imported tractors;

(5) Distribution of pesticides for control of crop pests, disease and rodents through custom spraying services,

(6) Conservation of soil erosion and control of soil alkanity and salanity,

(7) Afforestation of panchayat lands, planting of trees on road sides and other public places in the rural area,

(8) Popularisation of vegetable growing in the rural area and development of kitchen gardens in the urban areas,

Intensive Agricultural Development Programme has been further strengthened with additional programmes like, crash vegetable production, high-yielding varieties, applied nutrition, multiple cropping, marginal farmers, agricultural labourers development agency and establisment of workshop, threshing, harvesting and custom cultivation.

All the above mentioned programmes are executed through five block developent agencies, each headed by a Block Development Officer, who are assisted in their field work by Extension Officers, agriculture and animal husbandry, co-operative and panchayats at block level, and Village Level Workers at the village level.

On account of great emphasis on irrigation, activities of the minor irrigation cell formerly functioning as a part of this Unit were greatly extended In 1970, a fulfledged Executive Engineer (minor irrigation) was appointed as head of the office to look after the maintenance and running of existing State tubewells and installation of new State tubewells Executive Engineer (minor irrigation division) is assisted by a number of Assistant Engineers and Section Officers in his work Minor irrigation division is now functioning as a separate unit under the Executive Engineer (minor irrigation division) Major activities of this department are maintenance of existing tubewells, sinking of new tubewells, maintenance and extension of effluent irrigation from the sewage plants and maintenance and repairs of existing bunds and construction of new bunds to stop soil erosion

The department installed 46 State tubewells upto September 1971, 60 additional tubewells were under construction

Animal Husbandry, Poultry And Fisheries Unit

This office is headed by a Deputy Director of Animal Husbandry who is assisted by a number of specialists such as Rinderpest Officers, Livestock Officer, Officer Incharge of Semen Bank, Animal Husbandry-*cum*-Poultry Specialist and Assistant Research Officer, Poultry

The Deputy Director, Animal Husbandry, is also assisted by a Farm Superintendent in the poultry development programme and Deputy Warden, Fisheries, in the fisheries development programme The functions and services rendered by this department are mainly to control and eradicate contageous diseases of livestock by prophylacted vaccination, treat sick livestock, improve breeds or livestock, tackle the problem of stray and infirm cattle, help production of protein rich food like milk, eggs and fish, production and supply of good quality breeding chicks to poultry farm, render all extension services like control of poultry diseases by preventive inocculation against R K D and Fowl-pox, impart poultry training and technical know-how to poultry farmers, give technical advice in poultry farming, improve socio-economic conditions of fishermen, production and supply of good

quality fish seed and enable people to earn their livelihood through dairy, poultry and fisheries

Administrative Unit

The unit is headed by the Development Commissioner who is assisted by three Assistant Development Commissioners, Administration, Accounts & Panchayats These Assistant Development Commissioners (administration) co-ordinates the activities of all subordinate offices in administrative matters, whereas the work relating to accounts and budget at the headquarters is done by Assistant Commissioner (accounts)

Public Works Department

When the construction of new capital at New Delhi was nearing completion, a permanent Central Public Works Department Organisation was established in 1930 by the Government of India for maintenance of Government properties in New Delhi and Simla and a permanent post of one Chief Engineer, two Superintending Engineers and six Executive Engineers were created from 1st April, 1930 The Chief Engineer, Public Works Department, who was till then acting as Secretary to the Chief Commissioner, Delhi, ceased to be such, but instead, one of the Superintending Engineers was appointed as Secretary to the Chief Commissioner in the Public Works Department The Public Works of Local Administration were then being executed by the Provincial Division, Delhi under a separate circle known as 'Delhi State Circle" The Superintending Engineer who was in charge of this circle used to deal with all the engineering works under the administrative control of Chief Commissioner Delhi, and acted as head of the department of the Public Works Department of Delhi Administration

Due to considerable increase in volume of public works under Delhi Administration, this public works organisation was expanded by creation of more divisions, from time to time With the creation of Municipal Corporation of Delhi in 1958, having its jurisdiction over the whole of the Union Territory of Delhi all the State highways (excepting national highways and ring road) together with other municipal works of Notified Area Committees were transferred under the control of Municipal Corporation of Delhi

In 1961, the large scale development of land for residential purposes was undertaken by the Delhi Administration and in order to cope up with this large increase in volume of work, a separate zone of the Central Public Works Department known as the

"Lands Wing" was opened in December, 1962 This 'Lands Wing' was then headed by an officer of the rank of Additional Chief Engineer designated as Additional Chief Engineer (Lands). The name of this zone was later changed to Delhi Administration Zone and the designation of the head of this zone was changed as Chief Engineer (Delhi Administration Zone) in March, 1968

After creation of this zone, the existing Delhi State Circle which so long was looking after the Public Works (Building and Roads) of Delhi Administration was attached to this zone and renamed as Delhi Administration Circle No I In addition another executive circle known as Delhi Administration Circle No II, one Planning Circle under a Superintending Engineer and an Architectural Unit under a Senior Architect was created. The Delhi Administration Circle No II was created to execute all the works pertaining to development of land only Subsequently, a third circle known as Delhi Administration Circle No III was opened in July, 1968

Due to policy decision taken by the Delhi Development Authority to carry out development works through their own engineering organisation, the Delhi Administration Circle II was closed with effect from 7-10-1968 and transferred to Delhi Development Authority

The department was strengthened in August, 1972 by the creation of one more circle, two civil and one electrical divisions. An additional senior architect's unit was also created in October, 1972 One more senior architect's unit known as Senior Architect s III, Public Works Department was also sanctioned in December 1972 for construction of Medical College and Hospital at Shahdara In addition, the Superintending Surveyor of Works Organisation was strengthened with the addition of one Surveyor of Works unit in February, 1973

There were eleven civil divisions, three electrical divisions, one planning unit and three senior architect's units functioning in March, 1973 under Public Works Department of Delhi Administration The broad distribution of works between Circle Nos I, II, & III is that Delhi Administration Circle No I looks after the building works in north & east of Delhi, Circle No III in south and west of Delhi The Superintending Engineer No II looks after construction and maintenance of Master Plan roads and national highways and central fund roads of the Union Territory of Delhi.

This Department also looks after the horticulture works on ring road and other State highways The air conditioning works of the Administration are enrusted to the Electrical Division No. II, Public Works Department, Delhi Administration

The Chief Engineer, (Delhi Administration Zone) was redesignated as Chief Engineer, Public Works Department, Delhi Administration, in September, 1972 The Chief Engineer is responsible for execution and maintenance of all the building works of Delhi Administration and some arterial roads such as national highways, ring road and other Master Plan roads outside the ring road excepting Delhi-Shahdara road

A close relationship is maintained between the Public Works Department of Delhi Administration and the Central Public Works Department Almost the entire Public Works Department is manned by officers and staff of the Central Public Works Department The Public Works Department is also following all the rules and regulations governing the execution of works and accounting procedures as laid down for Central Public Works Department by the Government of India Besides the services of the Central Stores Division. both civil & electrical divisions of Central Public Works Department are being utilized by the department The department also maintains a close liaison with Municipal Corporation of Delhi & New Delhi and Municipal Committee for execution of building plans and with Delhi Development Authority and Town & Country Planning Organisation for execution of Master Plan roads etc

Directorate Of Industries

The history of the office of the Directorate of Industries can be traced back to the year 1921 when a post of Industrial Surveyor was created in Delhi The office of the Industrial Surveyor was attached to the office of the Deputy Commissioner, Delhi, and placed under the administrative supervision of the Director of Industries, Punjab The principal functions of the office of the Industrial Surveyor was collection and compilation of commercial and technical information relating to industries, giving advice to the industrial lists on various aspects of industrial development and testing samples of raw materials and finished goods The activities of the Industrial Surveyor were not only confined to Delhi but were also extended to Gurgaon and parts of Rohtak and Hissar districts In 1955, the post of the industrial Surveyor was abolished in view of the increased responsibilities and a new post of Superintendent of Industries, under the Deputy Commissioner was created.

The Superintendent of Industries was required to act as Provincial Marketing Officer also and in that capacity he conducted surveys of commercial commodities He also acted as the Registrar of Trade Unions and Labour Officer and was required to submit reports on strikes, lockouts and temporary closures under the Trade Disputes Act He had thus varigated responsibilities In 1947, a full-fledged Directorate of Industries and Labour was created under the reorganisation scheme The offices of the Superintendent of Industries, Statistics Authority, Labour Officer, the Chief Inspector of Factories and Boilers and Electrical Inspector, Delhi and Ajmer, the Inspector of Shops and Commercial Establishments, Joint Stock Companies and Firms were brought under the Director of Industries and Labour who was also appointed as Registrar of Joint Stock Companies, Registrar of Firms and Registrar of Trade Unions, Delhi The functions of enforcement of Weights and Measures Act and the offices of Regional Provident Fund Commissioner and Civil Supplies were also placed under him In 1961, with the rapid industrial growth and problems of labour unrest and industrial disputes, the office of the Directorate of Industries and Labour was bifurcated into two separate departments Directorate of Industries and Office of the Labour Commissioner

The Directorate is headed by the Director of Industries who is assisted in his functions by three Joint Directors, Technical Administration and Industries, and three Deputy Directors, Development and Planning, Industries and Raw Material, and Registrar of Societies and Weights and Measures and a few Assistant Directors besides other staff

The Joint Director of Industries (Technical) is the overall incharge for the disbursement of indigenous scarce category of iron and steel items, whereas, loan and land section as well as functions relating to the development of khadi and village industries handicrafts are under the Joint Director (Administration) The Deputy Director of Industries (Plans) looks after the plan schemes of the Directorate of Industries, the Deputy Director (Administration) looks after the administration of the Directorate and also functions as Registrar of Firms and Societies The Deputy Director-cum-Controller (Weights and Measures) looks after the enforcement of the Rajasthan Weights and Measures Enforcement Act, 1958, as extended to Delhi

For functional convenience, Delhi is divided into four zones namely, Connaught Place zone, Najafgarh zone, Daryaganj zone and Rural Area zone. Each zone is placed under the immediate

charge of the Assistant Director of Industries The zones have been further divided into circles and in each such zone, there are four circles and each circle is manned by a circle Inspector. The rural area is divided into five development blocks and one Extension Officer is incharge of each block

In the existing administrative setup, the Director of Industries is responsible for promotion of small scale industries and cottage industries He implements and executes all the programmes relating to the development of small scale and cottage industries in Delhi under the broad policy guidance of the ministries, departments, and various promotional boards The Directorate of Industries renders assistance to the small scale and cottage industry in the procurement of land in respect of units shifted from non-conforming areas, raw materials, machinery on hire purchase basis, finances and marketing

In the process of industrial planning and industrial development, the Directorate's functions are of regulatory nature accruing from the various enactments, orders and rules, viz Imports Control Order, Iron and Steel Control Act, Industries Development and Regulation Act, Delhi Administration Aid to Industries Rules, 1970, Indian Partnership Act, Rajasthan Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Act, 1952 as extended to the Union Territory of Delhi.

Bureau Of Economics And Statistics

The statistical system in Delhi started with the creation of a small statistical unit in the office of the Superintendent of Industries & Labour in the year 1948, with the primary function to collect industrial statistics under the census of Manufacturing Industries Rules 1946 The Bureau established in 1952 under the Development Department, is at present attached to the Planning Department since 1st February, 1968 The Bureau is headed by a Director The important publications of the Bureau are Quarterly Digest of Economics & Statistics and yearly statistical hand books besides implementation of statistical schemes covering statistics of labour, education, industries, agriculture, administrative intelligence, housing construction and estimation of State income etc

Cooperative Department

The cooperative movement in India may be said to begin with the passing of the Cooperative Societies Act, 1904 The

Act provided only for the formation of credit societies. The Act was repealed by the Act of 1912 in view of the rapid growth in the number and activities of the societies between 1906 and 1911 as also for the reason that it did not give legal protection to societies formed for purposes other than credit The Act of 1911 was replaced in Delhi in 1949 by extending the Bombay Cooperative Societies Act, 1925 by notification No 8/1/49-Judicial, dated 8th January 1949, issued under Delhi's Laws Act The Act is still in operation in Delhi although it has been repealed in the parent states

The Union Territory has recorded a significant progress in the field of cooperation In the year 1955-56, there were 1432 societies on the roll of the Cooperative Societies Department with the total membership of 87,726 and the total working capital of Rs 313 43 lakhs In June, 1971, there were 2681 cooperative societies functioning in the Union Territory of Delhi having a share capital of 58 crores, and deposits worth Rs 33 crores with a total membership of 4 84 lakhs The number of various societies and their functional break up is given in Appendix I

Administrative Set-up

In Delhi there was a joint cadre of Cooperative Department with the Punjab Even after 1911 when Delhi was separated from undivided Punjab, many departments had joint cadres with Punjab The Cooperative movement also continued to be controlled by the Cooperative Department of Punjab The Assistant Registrar, Gurgaon, had jurisdiction to supervise the cooperative movement in Delhi, and he was also the registering authority for cooperative societies in Delhi

In Sept, 1945, a post of Assistant Registrar was created in Delhi for supervising the cooperative societies registered in Delhi The Assistant Registrar was under the administrative control of the Deputy Registrar, Ambala Division The post of Assistant Registrar continued to be filled up by deputation from the officer of the Cooperative Department of the Punjab Government After 1947, the Department of Cooperation was placed under the overall charge of Deputy Commissioner, Delhi, and thus it was completely separated from Punjab In the year 1949-50, the department was placed under the charge of the Development Commissioner, Delhi Administration The Development Commissioner was appointed as *ex-officio* Registrar, Cooperative Societies The Deputy Registrar was the head of office

The department has expanded since then A separate post of Registrar, Cooperative Societies, was created in 1965 and he was made the head of the Cooperative Department The post of

Joint Registrar was created in the wake of devaluation of currency in 1966 to look after the consumers cooperative movement in Delhi The staff strength of the department (in August, 1972) is given below

Designation	*Number*
(a) Registrar	1
(b) Jt. Registrar	1
(c) Deputy Registrar	1
(d) Assistant Registrar	6
(e) Superintendent	1
(f) Chief Marketing Inspector	1
(g) Senior Auditors/Asstt Manager (Emporium)	12
(h) Inspectors/Auditors	40
(i) Sub-Inspectors/Jr Auditors	140
(j) U D Cs	14
(k) L D Cs	28
(l) Stenographers	5
(m) Jr Chemist	1
(n) Lab Assistant	1
(o) Driver	1
(p) Peons/Chowkidars	24
	277

APPENDIX I

Cooperative Societies in Delhi

Description	For the year ending 30th Jun					
	1956	1961	1968	1969	1970	1971
1 Total No of societies of all kinds	1,132	2,019	2,270	2,324	2,339	2,681
2 Total membership of all kinds of societies	87,726	1,80,153	3,90,518	4,01,959	4,14,161	4,84,216
3 Owned funds and working capital—						
(i) Owned funds (in thousand Rs)	7,718	19,390	1,36,018	1,66,303	1,79,364	1,90,261
(ii) Working capital (in thousand Rs)	31,343	99,531	3,59,522	4,30,712	5,06,050	5,82,238
4. Deposits (in thousand Rs)	19	66,416	2,33,420	2,96,589	3,27,068	3,35,269

Source · Registrar, Cooperative Societies, Delhi Administration, Delhi

CHAPTER XIV

LOCAL SELF GOVERNMENT

History Of Local Self Government

Before the creation of the Delhi Corporation in April 1958, a number of local bodies, both urban and rural, flourished in Delhi The origin and growth of these bodies is first presented, to serve as a background to the study of local self government in Delhi at the present time

District Board, Delhi

A District Board was first constituted for Delhi in 1884 under the Punjab District Boards Act. No XX of 1883 At the time of the creation of the Delhi Province in 1912, the Board consisted of nine *ex-officio,* one appointed and nineteen elected members The *ex-officio* members were the Tahsildars and Naib Tahsildars, and the non-official members were mostly *Zaildars* or candidates for those posts The Deputy Commissioner was the President of the Board, but the brunt of the work was borne by the Secretary, who was usually one of his Assistants [1]

After the Delhi Province was established, a new Board was constituted with 7 *ex-officio* and nominated officials and 14 nominated non-officials, the tenure of the latter being three years [2] The number of officials was reduced and that of non-officials raised by one in 1924-25 [3] With effect from October 1927, 12 out of 15 non-official seats were filled by direct election on a highly restricted franchise, each of the 12 *Zails* returning a member. The remaining 2 seats were held as before by non-officials nominated by the Government [4] At first, the Deputy Commissioner was *ex-officio* Chairman of the Board, although the meetings were usually presided over by the Additional District Magistrate who was the Vice-Chairman [5] From 1926-27, the latter became the Chairman, and a non-official was elected

[1] *Delhi District Gazetteer* (1912), p, 192.

[2] *Delhi Admn Report*, 1913-14, p. 35.

[3] *Delhi Admn Report* 1924-25,*p* 110

[4] *Delhi Admn Report*, 1927-28, p 18.

[5] *Notes on the Admn of the Delhi Province* (1926) p, 27.

Vice-Chairman[1] With the dawn of Independence, the Board was permitted in 1947-48 to elect a non-official Chairman, and Chaudhuri Kishan Chand, an Advocate, was the first to be so elected.[2]

The Board was reconstituted on a new basis in 1951-52. It consisted of 24 members—three *ex-officio* and 21 elected There were 17 general and four special *Harijan* constituencies for the returning of the elected members, and voting was on the basis of adult franchise Both the Chairman and the Vice-Chairman were elected by the Board[3] In 1956-57, it had four Standing Committees Finance, Education, Public Health and Works[4]

According to 1951 census, the Board catered to the needs of a population of three lakhs Its main activities were related to education, public health and sanitation, medical services veterinary and stock-breeding services, and maintenance of minor roads and irrigation works In 1956-57 it maintained three high schools and seven middle-schools, six civil dispensaries and five maternity and child welfare centres, ten veterinary hospitals and 55 miles of *kaccha* roads[5] Besides, it maintained cattle pounds, ferries, and conducted cattle fairs Dak bungalows and *serais* and primary schools were in its charge until such schools were provincialised, primary education was mostly provincialised in 1950 The steady increase in the public welfare activities of the Board is reflected in its annual budgets

	Income (Rs)	Expenditure (Rs)
1913-14	79,051	66,266
1920-21	1,71,927	1,76,398
1939-40	3,36,718	3,37,644
1955-56	7,89,442	9,60,867

[1] *Delhi Admn Report*, 1926-27, p 15
[2] *Delhi Admn Report*, 1947-48 (Mss), p 40
[3] *Delhi Admn Report*, 1951-52 (Mss), p. 50.
[4] Annual *Admn Report of the Delhi District Board*, 1956-57 (*Mss.*)
[5] *Delhi Admn. Report*, 1956-57, pp 255-6

Local rates were the first tax to be levied, and they were till very recently the main source of revenue through taxation. Profession tax, water rates and cycle tax were introduced in later years Besides miscellaneous sources such as income from property, a part of the Board's income was also derived from fees levied at cattle pounds, fairs, ferries, etc These were supplemented to a large extent by Government grants The pattern of its income and expenditure may be gleaned from the following summary of its budget for 1955-56 [1]

		Income (Rs)
I Provincial rates		
Local rates	14,573	60,799
Profession tax	12,929	
Water rate		
Contribution in respect of west Yamuna canal	5,351	
Cycle tax	27,946	
II Civil Works		46,378
III Debt (Advance and Deposits)		1,59,250
IV Other Sources		5,23,015
Total Income		7,89,442

		Expenditure (Rs)
I Education (excluding civil works items)		2,53,013
II. Civil Works		1,72,207
III Sanitation, hospitals etc. (excluding civil works items)		
Medical	73,120	3,61,560
Public health	2,04,404	
Veterinary and stock breeding	84,036	
IV Debts and Miscellaneous		1,73,577
Total Expenditure		9,60,357

The tax receipts of the Board formed only a small portion of its income and the dependence on Government was very great. In 1957-58, 61 per cent of its ordinary income was derived

[1] F 288(1)/BES/60—*Local Boards Statistics*

from Government grants in respect of education, medical services and public health, veterinary and stock-breeding, cattle pounds and communications [1]

The Government possessed extensive powers of control over the Board The Board's regulations did not have effect until approved by the Government Further, until Independence, the official Chairman held a dominant position, both at the meetings of the Board and in the administration The Board may be said to have worked in a freer atmosphere only after Independence especially after it was reconstituted in 1951-52.

Municipalities And Notified Areas

Beginnings Of The Municipalities And Notified Areas.—At the time the Municipal Corporation of Delhi was established there were five Municipal and five Notified Area Committees and a Cantonment Board Of these, the Delhi Municipal Committee had the longest history Municipal Government obtained in one form or another in Delhi ever since it was annexed by the British [2] In December 1862, the Improvement of Towns Act, No XXVI of 1850, was extended to Delhi by a notification of the Punjab Government The Delhi Municipal Committee as the body set up was first called,[3] had its first regular meeting of which there is record, on 1st June, 1863, under the chairmanship of Col G W Hamilton, Commissioner of the Delhi Division [4] From this date onwards, there is a clear and continuous record of municipal administration in what is now termed popularly Old Delhi The old towns of Najafgarh and Mehrauli were municipalities to begin with, but they were constituted into Notified Areas in 1886 [5] Shahdara was a Notified Area in the United Provinces at the time of its transfer to the Delhi Province in 1916,[6] and it was raised to a class II municipality in July, 1945 [7] Narela, an old village, was declared a Notified Area in October

[1] Annual *Admn Report of the Delhi District Board* 1957-58 (Mss-)

[2] *Delhi District Gazetted* (1912), p- 193-

[3] Annual *Admn Report of the Municipal Corporation of Delhi* 1958-59, p 1.

[4] Madho Prashad : *A short History of Delhi* (1921), p- 5-8

[5] *Delhi District Gazetteer* (1912), p. 197.

[6] *Delhi Admn Report*, 1915-16 p. 26.

[7] *Annual Admn. Report of the Shahadra Municipal Committee*, 1947-48-(Mss)

1919, in consequence of a new market cropping up there[1] The Delhi Fort, formerly a cantonment, was also put in that category in 1924[2] The Civil Lines or the Civil Station and New Delhi are of comparatively later origin The former was declared a Notified Area in 1913[3] The latter was constituted in Feb 1916 into a municipality of second class primarily to cater to the sanitary needs of the large number of workers engaged in the construction of the new capital It was known at first as the Imperial Delhi Municipal Committee or the Raisina Municipal Committee and in 1926-27, it was renamed as the New Delhi Municipal Committee[4] West Delhi had a Notified Area Committee from 16 December, 1943 There was rapid expansion of the area in subsequent years, and the rehabilitation colonies of Moti Nagar, Ramesh Nagar Tilak Nagar and Tehar cropped up In November, 1954, West Delhi was constituted into a Municipality with jurisdiction over about 30 sq miles, and the Committee that was set up commenced functioning in February 1955 The rise of the rehabilitation colonies of Kalkaji, Malaviya Nagar and the Friends Colony and the privately-sponsored colonies of Haus Khas and Kailash led to the establishment of the South Delhi Municipal Committee with jurisdiction over about 23 sq miles The Committee commenced functioning in March, 1954[5]

Size And Importance

The Municipalities and Notified Areas differed very much in their size and importance (Appendix I), Delhi Municipality with about a million population in 1951 held a premier position while New Delhi with over a quarter million came next Narela, Mehrauli and Najafgarh remained over-grown villages with less than ten thousand population The others were medium-size townships Indeed, except for Narela, all these municipalities and notified areas could be regarded as parts of the general metropolitan area of Delhi, although they were within the jurisdiction of separate local bodies owing to special historical and administrative circumstances.

1 *Notes on the Administration of Delhi Province* (1926), p 30

2 *Ibid.*, p. 31.

3 *Ibid.*, p 4.

4 *Ibid*, p 81 Also *Delhi Admn. Report*, 1926-27, p 20.

5 F. II (51) 54 L S G., pp. 51 & 53, and F 288(1)/BES/60, Cor. (Receipt), No. F. 51—*Annual. Admn. Reports of West Delhi and South Delhi Mpl. Committee for* 1954-55 (Mss.).

Composition And Structure

Delhi Municipal Committees.—As regards the composition and structure of these municipal and notified area committees, some had a democratic set up, while the others were administered by official or nominated bodies Delhi, Shahdara, Najafgarh, Narela and Mehrauli belonged to the former category. The Delhi Municipal Committee was, from 1863, for over two decades, a nominated body, members being appointed by the Deputy Commissioner, Delhi, subject to the approval of the Commissioner of the Division At its inception, it had 19 members, of which seven were Indians, and in 1881-82, there were 21 members six officials and the rest non-official[1], three Europeans, six Hindus and six Muslims The elective principle which had been tried in 1868 and given up was reintroduced in 1884, and the Committee came to have 21 members, four *ex-officio*, five nominated and 12 elected from different wards[2] The members held office for three years and retired annually by rotation In 1914-15, secret ballot and the system of holding general elections every three years were introduced[3] There were changes from time to time in the composition of the Committee and the trend was towards increasing its total strength and the proportion of elected members In 1921-22, when the electroral rolls were revised, the Committee came to comprise of 36 members, two *ex-officio*, four nominated, six elected by special interests and 24 elected by wards There were 12 wards each returning one Hindu and one Muhammadan Voting was in accordance with the system of separate electorates On the eve of Independence the composition of the Committee was as follows[4]

2 members elected from each of the 14 elective wards of the city	28
Elected by specified industrial and commercial bodies and cultural organisations	6
Nominated by the Government	7
Ex-officio the Civil surgeon and superintendent of education	2
TOTAL .	43

[1] Madho Prashad *A Short History of Delhi* (1921), p 55

[2] *Municipal Corpn of Delhi—Members* Guide Book, 1970, p. 1.

[3] Madho Prashad *A Short History of Delhi*, (1921), pp. 229-30.

[4] *Delhi Admn. Report*, 1947-48 (Mss.), p. 43.

After Independence, the Committee was reconstituted in November, 1951, on a new basis with adult franchise and there were a few minor changes subsequently.[1]

	November 1951	1956-57
Elected by the constituencies constituted under Rule 3(a) of the Delhi Municipality Election Rules, 1951	47	50
Elected by the special constituencies formed to secure the respresentation of the Scheduled Castes . .	3	6
Elected to represent special interests · labour workers—2, the Punjab Chamber of Commerce, the United Chamber of Trade Association, the Delhi Hindusthani Mercantile Association, and the occupiers of registered factories in Delhi—one each ; and appointed by name—3	9	9
Ex-Officio	4	5
TOTAL .	63	70

General elections were not held at the end of the second term since the Delhi Municipality was to be merged before long in the Delhi Corporation that was to be set up As a temporary expedient, the Committee was reconstituted in November, 1957, with 68 members—five *ex-Officio* and the rest nominated by the Chief Commissioner, all the outgoing members being included among the nominated members[2]

As regards the presidentship of the Delhi Municipal Committee, the Commissioner of the Delhi Division was the President during 1863-70[3] After this, by convention or formal rule, the Deputy Commissioner acted as President This arrangement lasted till November, 1946,[4] from which time a non-official came to be elected to hold the office. Sheikh Habibur Rehman was the first elected non-official President. This Committee also came to have two elected Vice-Presidents, Senior and Junior.

[1] F 11(4)/54—LSG-*Review of the Local Bodies* (Mss.), p 63 Also *Annual Admn Report of the Delhi Municipal Committee*, 1956

[2] *D M C. Annual Admn., Report*, 1957, p 1.

[3] Madho Prashad *A Short History of Delhi* (1921), pp. 7, 11, 16, 18, and 98 Also *Delhi Admn Reports*, 1913-14 to 1939-40.

[4] K. K. Sethi : *Delhi Municipal Admn since Independence* (1951), pp. 1-2 *Basant Mela*, pp. 42-3

Shahdara Municipality.—Of the bodies with a democratic set up, Shahdara, with its population of over thirty thousand in 1951, was next in importance When it was declared a Notified Area in the Delhi Province in 1916, the Committee had four non-official nominated members[1] Its strength gradually increased and in 1939-40, there were nine members[2] When Shahdara was made a class II municipality in July, 1943, the Committee's strength was fixed at ten, of whom six were to be appointed by the Chief Commissioner and the rest elected by the inhabitants An official President was provided at the beginning, but after Independence a non-official came to be appointed to hold the office[3] The Committee was constituted on a new basis in 1952-53 There were at first 17 members two *ex-officio*, two nominated and 13 elected—11 from general constituencies and two from constituencies for the Scheduled Castes In September, 1953, three more members were nominated by the Chief Commissioner raising the strength of the Committee to 20 There was a further change in 1957 and the Committee came to have 27 members *ex-officio* two, nominated three, elected through general constituencies 17, reserved seats for the Scheduled Castes three, registered factory occupiers and labour workers one each[4]

Narela, Mehrauli And Najafgarh.—On the eve of Independence, the Committees of these three small towns consisted of eight, nine and nine members respectively including both officials and non-officials, all nominated by the Chief Commissioner In 1951-52, these bodies were reconstituted on the following basis

	Elected	Nominated non-official	Ex-officio and nominated officials
Narela	8	4	..
Mehrauli	8	4	
Najafgarh	9		

1 *Delhi Admn Report*, 1915-16, pp 26 and 148

2 *Delhi Admn Reports*, 1935-36, p ,67, and 1939-40, p. 29.

3 *Delhi Admn Report*, 1947-48 (Mss.), p. 71

4 F 11(4)/54—LSG *Review of the Local Bodies*, p 25, *Annual Admn. Reports of Shahdara Mnnicipal Committee for* 1951-52 to 1956-57

5 *Delhi Admn. Report*, 1947-48 (Mss)

Voting for the elected seats was on the basis of adult suffrage and the President was elected.[1] The Najafgarh Committee was superseded in 1953. When it was reconstituted in October, 1954, it had six elected and three nominated members.[2]

New Delhi, Civil Lines, Delhi Fort, West Delhi And South Delhi.—Full-fledged democratic administrations were not set up in these areas for different reasons. New Delhi and the Civil Lines were the seats of the Central and the State Governments respectively. The Government offices and diplomatic missions were all located here and their population comprised mostly of Government servants. Elective bodies were, therefore, not considered suitable for their civic administration. Again, Delhi Fort was, for security reasons, left to be administered by military personnel. As regards West Delhi and South Delhi, they were newly developed areas over which greater supervision and control on the part of the Government were considered necessary.[3]

The New Delhi Municipal Committee consisted at first of officials only, and the administration was mostly in the hands of the Central Public Works Department.[4] It was only in 1931-32 that it became "a full-fledged Municipality having been entrusted with the control of and supervision over all the services and activities that a Municipality is called upon to undertake".[5] In course of time, non-officials gained admittance. The Committee as reconstituted in April, 1925, had ten nominated members—officials and non-officials being equal in number.[6] The strength of the Committee and the proportion of official to non-official members varied from time to time. On the eve of Independence, there were 16 nominated members, seven being *ex-officio* and the rest non-official.[7] In September, 1950, the Committee was reconstituted with 20 members, 12 officials and eight non-officials.[8] In September, 1956, the strength of the Com-

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1 *Delhi Admn. Report*, 1951-52(Mss.), pp. 82-85, F. 288(1)/BES/60—*Local Bodies Statistics*

2 *Annual Admn Report of Najafgarh Notified Area Committee*, 1954-55 to 1957-58

3 F. 11 (61)/54-LSG, pp. 22 and 36

4 *Delhi Admn. Report*, 1922-23, p. 17, *Noters on the Admn. of Delhi Province* (1926), p. 81

5 *Delhi Admn. Report* 1931-32 p. 41.

6 *Notes on the Administration of the Delhi Province* (1926) p. 8

7 *Delhi Admn. Report*, 1947-48(Mss.), pp. 50-51.

8 *Delhi Admn. Report*, 1951-52(Mss.) p. 54 and 1951-52(Mss.), p. 61.

mittee was reduced to eight, officials two and non-officials six, and in May, 1957, a representative of the Central Government servants was added[1] The Committee had throughout an official President In 1957, the Deputy Commissioner, Delhi, was the *ex-officio* President of the Committee and there were two Vice-Presidents, Senior and Junior, elected by the Committee[2]

The Delhi Civil Station Area Committee or the Civil Lines Committee had at its inception in 1913, six nominated members, four officials and two non-officials, with an official chairman.[3] The composition varied from time to time, and on the eve of Independence it had nine members, three *ex-officio* and six nominated, with the Deputy Commissioner, Delhi, as Chairman[4] The position remained unaltered in the subsequent years[5]

The Delhi Fort Area Committee had, at its inception in 1924, three members—the Deputy Commissioner, Delhi, as President, and two other military officers[6] In the post-Independence period down to its merger in the Corporation, it had four members, all nominated officials[7] In 1956, the Committee comprised of the Deputy Commissioner Delhi, as President and the Officer Commanding the Fort, the Medical Officer in charge of the troops stationed in the Fort and the Engineer Officer in charge of military buildings at the Fort, as members

West Delhi was at first a Notified Area with effect from 16th December 1943 The Chairman, Delhi Improvement Trust, was the President of the Committee, and there were six nominated members, three official and three non-official From August 1947, onwards, it came to have nine members, of whom three were officials and the others nominated non-officials The President was a non-official.[8] West Delhi was declared a munici-

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[1] *New Delhi Municipal Committee File regarding nomination of members*

[2] *Ibid. and Delhi Admn. Report*, 1957-58, p 274.

[3] *Delhi Admn. Report*, 1913-14, p 159

[4] *Delhi Admn Report*, 1947-48 (Mss), p 73

[5] F. 288(1) BES/60—*Local Bodies Statistics.*

[6] *Delhi Admn Report*, 1924-25, p 15. *Notes on the Admn of the Delhi Province* (1926), p 31

[7] *Delhi Admn Reports*, 1949-50 *to* 1951-52 (Mss.) Also *Annual Admn Reports of Delhi Fort Notified Area Committee* from 1948-49 to 1955-56

[8] *Delhi Admn Report*, 1947-48 (Mss.), p 86, and also *Reports for* 1948-49 to 1951-52 (Mss)

pal area in November, 1954, and the Committee was reconstituted with eight official and seven non-official members,[1] and an official President

The South Delhi Municipal Committee, which commenced functioning in March 1954, consisted at first of seven official and two non-official members Its composition varied frequently, and in 1957 it had 16 members, eight official and eight non-official. The Chairman, Delhi Improvement Trust, was the *ex-officio* President and there was an elected Vice-President[2]

Activities Of The Municipalities And Notified Areas

Prior to 1957, the functions and powers of these bodies were regulated by the Punjab Municipalities Act, No III of 1911, as extended to the Delhi State The scope of their activities, as permitted under the law was sufficiently wide It included maintenance of a municipal police force, construction and maintenance of roads, bridges and embankments, running of schools and promotion of other educational activities opening of hospitals and provision for public health such as vaccination, sanitary measures such as scavenging, maintenance of drains and disposal of sewage, water supply, street lighting, maintenance of rest houses, cattle pounds, poor houses, public parks and markets, extinction and prevention of fire, etc The local bodies could, with the sanction of the Local or State Government, undertake any other function 'likely to promote the safety health, welfare or convenience of the inhabitants'[3] The scope and scale of activities actually undertaken by the local bodies, however, depended mostly upon their resources, initiative and enterprise Excepting the small towns of Narela, Najafgarh and Mehrauli and the newly developed areas, the other local bodies provided all the principal services expected of them The Dufferin Hospital was completed in 1892-93 The waterworks of the city were completed in 1894-95 The Delhi Municipality opened a tramway for the convenience of passengers in June, 1908.[4] The general rise in the expenditure incurred by the local bodies given in Appendix II indicates how the responsibilities discharged greatly increased in recent years.

[1] *F* 288(1)*BES*/60, *Local Bodies Statistics*

[2] *Annual Adm Reports of South D.M C. for* 1954-57

[3] *S*52(*b*), *Punjab Municipalities Act, No* III *of* 1911

[4] *Basant Mela, p.* 42

The total income of the municipal bodies, including the Delhi Cantonment Board, in 1955-56, was Rs 648 04 lakhs. The predominant position of the Delhi and New Delhi Municipal Committees is seen from the fact that their income was Rs 343 20 lakhs and Rs 259 22 lakhs respectively, and together their income constituted 92 8% of the income of the municipal bodies The income of the others was only 7 2%. The Municipal and Notified Area Committees of Shahdara and the Civil Station had an income of Rs 11 45 lakhs and Rs 17 93 lakhs respectively and that of each of the remaining Committees was less than five lakhs

Loans and extra-ordinary incomes apart, the municipal bodies had four primary sources of income, general taxes, income from municipal properties and "service" taxes such as water rates, fees and fines, and Government grants The general taxes comprised those on lands and buildings, terminal tax, octroi duty, tax on vehicles and animals, taxes on motor cars, cycles, horse-drawn carriages and other vehicles, taxes on milch cattle and dogs, profession tax, tax on building applications, and miscellaneous taxes such as the theatre tax etc These taxes were levied and collected by the respective municipal bodies, except the terminal tax and the motor vehicles tax The Municipal Committees of Delhi and New Delhi and the Notified Area Committees of Delhi Fort and the Civil Station constituted the Delhi Terminal Tax Ring, and the tax was collected at a uniform rate and divided among the members on an agreed basis Shahdara levied the tax independently and had its own schedule of rates The other municipal bodies did not levy this tax[1] The tax on motor cars was collected by the State Motor Transport Controller at the rate fixed by the Government and the proceeds were distributed among the municipal bodies There were great variations in the taxes levied by the different municipal bodies The tax on land and buildings was levied by all of them and the tax on cycles was the next most popular source of revenue. The terminal tax and the tax on motor vehicles were major sources of income of the principal municipal bodies, namely, those of Delhi, New Delhi and the Civil lines While the taxes levied were many and various, the tax on buildings and lands, the terminal tax and the motor vehicles tax provided most of the income In 1957-58, the income of the local bodies, including the District Board but not the Delhi Cantonment Board, comprised of the following.

[1] *Annual Admn. Report of the Municipal Corporation of Delhi* 1958-59 *p.* 16

Tax on land and buildings	38.5%
Terminal tax and octroi duty	47.8%
Motor vehicles tax	6.8%
All other taxes	6.9%

Particular tax items assumed importance in different places In 1957-58, the terminal tax constituted 57.9% and 75.9% of the tax income of the Municipal Committees of Delhi and Shahdara respectively The tax on lands and buildings was the principal source of tax income of the Municipal Committees of New Delhi, South Delhi and West Delhi and the Notified Area Committees of the Civil Station and the Fort, the income from this source constituted 56.4%, 88.3%, 74.0% 47.8% and 57.1% respectively of their total tax revenues Tolls on vehicles and animals formed 81.6%, 75.9% and 52.3% of the tax income of the Notified Area Committees of Mehrauli, Najafgarh and Narela

Next to the general taxes, income from municipal properties formed an important source of income Water rates in the case of the Delhi Municipal Committee and water rates and electricity charges in the case of the New Delhi Municipal Committee were also valuable sources of revenue The income from these sources constituted 23.3% and 64% of the ordinary income of the Delhi and New Delhi Municipal Committees respectively in 1957-58, and 46.4% and 41.1% of the Notified Area Committee of the Delhi Fort and the Civil Station respectively for the same year This item formed a minor source of revenue in other cases Fees and fines connected with the routine of municipal administration was only a minor source of revenue in all cases

Government grants were given primarily in respect of education and public health Sixty-eight per cent of the Government grants to municipal bodies (excluding Delhi Cantonment Board) in 1957-58 went towards education and 4% towards public health

In the case of the newly developed areas of South and West Delhi, the bulk of the grants was for general purposes Excessive dependence on Government is a sign of weakness in local self-governing institutions In the case of the three principal local bodies — Delhi, New Delhi and the Civil Station it may be noted that Government grants contributed only 7.7%, 3.5% and 7.0% respectively of their ordinary income in 1957-58 Dependence on these grants was pronounced in the case of the newly-developed areas of South and West Delhi and in the case of

Shahdara and Mehrauli The proportion of Government grants to ordinary income in their case was 52.9%, 70 1%, 27.3% and 45 6% respectively

A brief statement of the income and expenditure of the Municipal and Notified Area Committees and the Delhi Cantonment Board for the year 1955-56 is given at Appendix III (A & B) There were many variations from one committee to another in the pattern of expenditure The following statement in respect of the Delhi Municipal Committee for the year 1957 gives an idea of the principal items of expenditure, which account for 90 7% of the ordinary expenditure

	Amount (in Rs)	Percentage of total ordinary expenditure
General administration and collection charges	41,17,700	13 5
Lighting	10,42,756	3 4
Water supply (including capital outlay)	49,16,116	16 1
Drainage (including capital outlay)	15,62,683	5 1
Conservancy	54,15,017	17·8
Hospitals and dispensaries, veterinary hospitals, and plague and other epidemic diseases	13,24,904	4 3
Education	48,98,268	16 0
Public works	44,26,099	14 5
Other Items	27,44,295	9 3
Total ordinary expenditure	3,04,47,838	100 0

Government Control Over Local Bodies

Under the Punjab Municipalities Act of 1911, the Government possessed extensive powers of control over the local bodies Their bye-laws were subject to confirmation by Government before coming into force, and those in force could be cancelled by it[1] Any tax imposed by them could also be set aside[2] On the executive and administrative side, the

[1] *The Punjab Municipalities Act*, 1911, *S*, 201.

[2] *Ibid.*, S. 71.

operation of a resolution or order of a municipal committee could be suspended by the Deputy Commissioner or Commissioner, and also any specific action considered necessary in public interest could be taken without reference to or despite the wishes of the committee[1] In the last resort, the Government could supersede a committee if it was found incompetent.[2] Above all, with a large proportion of nominated members, and an official as President, the local bodies were too much subject to Government pressure and control

Statutory Bodies Entrusted With "Municipal" Functions

The Delhi Joint Water And Sewage Board

In addition to the Municipal and Notified Area Committees, there were a few autonomous statutory bodies entrusted with certain what may be regarded municipal functions There was first the Delhi Water and Sewage Board In the beginning, all the local bodies were directly responsible for water supply in their respective areas, and the water-works of Delhi Municipal Committee was inagurated about 1890[3] In a minute dated 31 December, 1919, Sir Hugh Keeling drew attention to the community of interest of the urban area of Delhi administered by the different local bodies, in the matter of water supply, sewerage, electric supply and conservancy services, and recommended the establishment of a joint board "for the purpose of advising on and finally administering" these services and such other public services as might be added afterwards.[4] After prolonged discussions and negotiations with the concerned interests, the Delhi Joint Water Board was set up by Act XXIII of 1926 and endowed with corporal powers. The constituent bodies which it served at first were the Delhi Municipal Committee, New Delhi Municipal Committee Civil Lines Notified Area Committee and the Delhi Cantonment Authority.[5] In 1938, the Government handed over to the Board the works constructed for the water-borne sewerage of Delhi, and made it responsible for the disposal of the sewage supplied by the first three of the constituent bodies[6] With this addition to its duties, it was redesignated as the Delhi Joint Water and

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[1] *The Punjab Municipalities Act* 1911 *S* 232-4

[2] *Ibid*, *S* 238.

[3] *Notes on the Admn. of the Delhi Province* (1926), *p* 40.

[4] *Ibid* *p* 122

[5] *The Delhi Joint Water Board Act*, 1926,

[6] *Delhi Admn. Report* 1938-39 p 29

Sewage Board[1] The South Delhi Committee came within its orbit later on The Board, constituted in 1926, comprised of nine members (1) the Chief Commissioner (2) four members of the Delhi Municipal Committee and one member of the Civil Lines Committee, elected by the respective committees (3) one member nominated by the Officer Commanding the Delhi Cantonment Area and (4) two persons nominated by the Governor General in Council[2] The Chief Commissioner was the *ex-officio* President of the Board[3] The tenure of both the elected and the nominated members was three years[4] The Board appointed an Engineer-Secretary, who was not one of its members[5] The Superintending Engineer, Health Services, Delhi State, usually held the post[6] The Board had to keep pace with the growth of the city, and its increasing responsibilities are indicated by the following:[7]

	1928-29	1939-40	1956-57
Average daily supply of water in million gallons	7 5	14 37	53 13
Average daily sewage pumped in million gallons	—	11 72	40 01

There was bulk supply of water to and receipt of sewage for disposal from the local bodies, and the cost was apportioned equitably in proportion to the services rendered The issue rate of water per thousand gallons was calculated for each financial year, and each of the constituent bodies charged for the amount of water consumed by them The Delhi Municipal Committee enjoyed a special concession under the Act It paid for the water at the final issue rate or at three annas per thousand gallons whichever was less the difference, if any, being met by the Central Government[8] As regards the cost of sewage disposal,

[1] *The Delhi Joint Water Board (Amendment) Act*, No XVIII of 1938

[2] *The Delhi Joint Water Board Act*, 1926,S 3

[3] *Ibid*, S 4(2)

[4] *Central Rules*, No 8(i)

[5] *The Delhi Joint Water Board Act*, 1926, s.4(3)

[6] *Delhi Admn Report*, 1929-30, p 28, and 1956-57, p. 283

[7] *Delhi Admn, Reports for the relevant years*

[8] *The Delhi Joint Water Board Act*, 1926, s. 15(1)

the apportionment of cost was left to the determination of the Central Government once in five years[1] In 1956-57, the cost was shared by the Delhi Municipal Committee, New Delhi Municipal Committee and Civil Station Notified Area Committee in the ratio of 58·36:6.

The annual budgets of the Board and its borrowings were subject to the approval of the Central Government[2] Disputes regarding liability for payments were at first decided by the Auditor General[3] Under the Government of India (Adaptation of India Laws) Order, 1937, however, they were referred to the Central Government

The Delhi Iprovement Trust

With a view to clear slums and secure planned development of the city, the Trust was set up in March, 1937, by extending to Delhi the U.P Town Improvement Act of 1919 with certain modifications and additions[4] In addition to the management of the Trust or acquired lands, it was charged with the development of the Government Nazul lands, and the re-housing schemes in respect of slum evacuees Its jurisdiction extended approximately to over 150 sq miles in and around Delhi.

The Trust comprised of seven trustees (1) the Chairman, (2) Engineer member (the Superintending Engineer, Delhi State), (3) Financial Adviser (Deputy Secretary to the Government of India, Ministry of Finance (Delhi State), (4) Health member (Deputy Director of Health Services), (5) two representatives of the Delhi Municipal Committee and (6) one person nominated by the Chief Commissioner, Delhi[5]

The Delhi Road Transport Authority

With a view to provide better transport facilities to the citizens of Delhi, the Government of India acquired in May, 1948, the Gwalior & Northern India Transport

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[1] *The Delhi Joint Water Board Act*, 1926, s 14(b)(1)

[2] *Ibid*, SS 6 & 37.

[3] *Ibid*., S 15(1).

[4] *Delhi Admn. Report*, 1937-38, p. 25

[5] F.11(4)/54-LSG- *Review of Local Bodies*, & *also Delhi Admn. Report* 1949-50 (Mss), p. 94

Coy., Ltd., a private company operating in the city. As a purely temporary measure, the Ministry of Transport was entrusted with the operation of the service.[1] In April, 1950, under the Delhi Road Transport Authority Act, No. XIII of 1950, the service was handed over to the newly-created corporate body, the Delhi Road Transport Authority The object in view in creating the Authority was to secure "an efficient, adequate, economical and properly co-ordinated system of road transport services for passengers and goods in the State of Delhi and in any extended area[2]" The authority had the power to operate road transport services and also provide ancillary services[3]

The Authority consisted of seven members (1) one member each elected by the members of the Delhi Municipal Committee and the District Board respectively (2) one non-official having experience in transport industrial, commercial or financial matters nominated by the Central Government, (3) three officials, one of them representing the Ministry of Finance nominated by the Central Government, and (4) The Chief Commissioner of Delhi or his nominee One of these members was appointed Chairman by the Central Government[4] The General Manager, appointed by the Central Government, acted as the Secretary to the Authority[5] The term of office of the non-official members was three years[6]

Although the Authority functioned as an autonomous body and enjoyed considerable freedom, the Central Government retained in its hands extensive powers of control Its annual budget and its regulations were subject to the approval of the Central Government before coming into force[7] If the Government considered it necessary, it could take control of a part of the undertaking or supersede the Authority altogether for a specified period[8]

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[1] F. 11(4)/54/LSG-*Review of the Local Bodies.*

[2] *The Delhi Road Transport Authority Act*, No XIII of 1950, S. 19

[3] *Ibid*, S. 20

[4] *Ibid* S 4

[5] *Ibid*, SS 15(1) & 16(2)

[6] *Ibid* S 5

[7] *The Delhi Road Transport Authority Act*, No XIII of 1950, SS. 31 & 53.

[8] *Ibid*, SS 42 & 43

The constitution of the Authority came to be revised in 1958 with the establishment of (when the authority was merged in) the Delhi Corporation which assumed responsibility for the city's transport.

The Delhi State Electricity Board

In 1905, M/s John Fleaming & Co, were granted licence by the Government of India to generate and supply electricity in Delhi. The concern passed into the hands of another company which came to be eventually called the Delhi Electric Supply & Traction Co, Ltd With the holding of the Imperial Durbar of 1911 and the shifting of the capital from Calcutta to Delhi, there was need for more power The Central Public Works Department of the Government of India took up the task of providing the additional supply as a departmental responsibility The generating station that was set up was transferred in 1932 to the New Delhi Municipal Committee In April, 1939, the Government of India set up the Delhi Central Electric Power Authority which took over the work of generating electricity for the whole of Delhi and the New Delhi Municipal Committee and the D E S.T Coy, Ltd, acted merely as distributors With the expiry of the license of the D E S T Coy Ltd, in March, 1947, the work of distribution in respect of Delhi was taken over by that Authority In March, 1951, an autonomous body known as the Delhi State Electricity Board was set up under the Electricity (Supply) Act, 1948, which took over the functions of the Delhi Central Electric Power Authority in matters relating to electricity The Board had three members the Administrative Member, the Engineer Member and the Finance Member. With the establishment of the Delhi Corporation in 1958, the Board became an integral part of the municipal body.[1]

The Reforms Of 1958 And After

Under the States Reorganisation Act of 1956, Delhi ceased to be a separate State with an independent legislature and came to be administered by the Central Government through an Administrator. While this step was considered essential in the larger interests of the country, something had to be done to assuage local sentiment which was opposed to the withdrawal of the democratic setup The States Reorganisation Commission of 1955 had regarded the problem of the Delhi State to be primarily one of meeting "the requirements and aspirations of a cosmopolitan

[1] Based on F 11 (4)/54/LSG, *Review of Local Bodies, and Report on the working of the Undertaking during* 1958-59.

urban population", and considered that "municipal autonomy in the form of a corporation, which will provide greater local autonomy than is the case in some of the important federal capitals, is the right and in fact the only solution"[1] Indeed, the inconvenience of having multiple local bodies in respect of a civic community which was essentially one, had been realised over three decades ago, and, as mentioned earlier, special statutory bodies had cropped up one by one to provide common services in respect of water supply, sewage, electricity, transport and town development In 1938, Shri Asaf Ali, the veteran nationalist leader, moved a resolution at a meeting of the Delhi Municipal Committee for the integration of the different local bodies and the setting up of a Corporation.[2] A similar recommendation was also made by the Enquiry Committee for Municipal Reorganisation in 1946 With the abolition of the Delhi State in November, 1956, the demand for a unified civic body became more pressing[3] In this connection, a major question that had to be decided at the outset was as to the bodies to be merged in or kept out of the Corporation After due deliberation, it was decided to exclude the Delhi Cantonment and half of New Delhi from the jurisdiction of the Corporation, and also to constitute a new development authority in succession to the Delhi Improvement Trust While their exclusion was resisted as undemocratic and evincing a spirit of mistrust towards the Corporation,[4] the step was defended on various grounds As regards New Delhi, only about 16 square miles of the urban area, with approximately half of its population were excluded Here were located foreign embassies, the Secretariat of the Central Government, and Government quarters for the staff It was felt that "the standards of health, of cleanliness, of sanitation and of education, and of almost everything"[5] in respect of this area called for special attention, and this would not be forthcoming if it was tagged on to a larger body like the Corporation Moreover, more than 90 per cent of the residents of the area were Government servants or their dependents They would not be eligible for election to the Corporation, and as such they would have no

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[1] *Report of the State Reorganisation Commission*, 1955, Paras 591 and 593.

[2] *Lok Sabha Debates*, Vol IX, 1957, p. 2395

[3] *Ibid.*, pp.2533 & 2551.

[4] *Lok Sabha Debates*, Vol IX, 1957, pp.2527-34 (Mrs. Kripalani), and *Rajya Sabha Debates*, Vol XIX, 1957, pp. 2660-63 (Dr R B. Gaur)

[5] *Lok Sabha Debates*, Vol IX, p.2564 (Pandit C. B Pant)

direct voice in the management of its affairs[1] The exclusion of the Delhi Cantonment was justified on grounds of security and public interest[2] In view of the extensive powers proposed to be vested in the Corporation there was a strong case for entrusting the body with responsibility of town development as well But the Government of India felt that a Master Plan for the development of the city on sound lines had to be drawn up Besides, the development of vast areas to give relief to the over crowded city would present problems of the highest complexity and involve heavy work of a routine nature Due attention to the subject could be best assured only by having a special body constituted for that sole purpose[3] The future of the District Board which catered to the needs of the rural areas was also a matter for serious consideration Although there was no precedent for having a common local body for urban and rural areas, the Government felt that the interests of the latter would be best served by being placed under the Corporation. The development of the rural areas had been greatly handicapped by the limited resources of the District Board, and the greater resources of the Corporation would be of great help to them Since the people of the rural areas were in sufficiently large numbers, there was no danger of their legitimate interests being ignored[4] Thus, after the reorganisation of 1958 the following local bodies came to be included in the Union Territory of Delhi the Municipal Corporation of Delhi, the New Delhi Municipal Committee, Delhi Cantonment Board, and the Delhi Development Authority

The Municipal Corporation of Delhi

The Delhi Municipal Corporation Act, LXVI of 1957, was passed into law on 28th December, 1957 Pending the establishment of the Corporation under a notification of 15th February, 1958, issued by the Ministry of Home Affairs, the Government of India appointed, as an interim measure, a Commissioner of Local Authorities to take over the management of all the local bodies to be merged in it The first general municipal election was held in March 1958, and the Corporation took its birth on 7th April, 1958.[5]

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[1] Ibid pp. 2381-2 & 2563-5 (Pandit G B Pant).

[2] Ibid , p. 2533 (Mrs. Kripalani against the exclusion of the bazar and the civilian area)

[3] *Lok Sabha Debates*, Vol X 1957, pp. 4798-805 (Shri Datar) and *Rajya Sabha Debates*, Vol, XIX, pp. 2669-74 (Dr. R. B Gaur).

[4] *Lok Sabha Debates*, Vol. IX, 1957, p 2556 (Pandit G. B. Pant)

[5] *Annual Admn Report of the Delhi Municipal Corporation* 1958-59 pp. 1-2.

The Corporation is charged with the municipal government of the entire area of the Union Territory of Delhi, excluding the portions falling within the jurisdiction of the New Delhi Municipal Committee and the Delhi Cantonment Board It is to be noted that, except for the small excluded areas, its territorial jurisdiction is conterminous with that of the Delhi Administration Their respective spheres of activity are different While the Municipal Corporation of Delhi is in charge of purely municipal functions, the Delhi Administration is in charge of the function of a State Government, maintenance of law and order, justice etc The local bodies and statutory authorities whose functions the Municipal Corporation of Delhi took over, were the Municipal Committees of Delhi West Delhi, South Delhi and Shahdara, the Notified Area Committees of Civil Station, Red-Fort, Mehrauli, Najafgarh and Narela, the Delhi District Board, Delhi Road Transport Authority, the Delhi State Electricity Board and the Delhi Joint Water and Sewage Board[1] Under an ordinance of 3rd November, 1971, however, the Corporation has been relieved of its responsibilities in respect to the Delhi Transport Undertaking, whose place has been taken up by the Delhi Transport Corporaton set up under the provisions of the Road Transport Corporation Act, 1950[2] According to 1961 census, its jurisdiction extended over 1398 37 Sq kms (539 91 Sq Miles) and its population, was 23,60,962. The estimated population according to the 1971 census, was 36,94,451[3] The Corporation ranks today with Calcutta, Bombay and Madras as a premier municipal body in the country

Guiding Principles

The constitution of the Delhi Municipal Corporation has been drawn up on the pattern of that of Bombay which is generally regarded as the best administered municipal body in the country[4] To state the main principles on which it is drawn up, the Corporation is constituted on a sound democratic basis, the official and nominated elements finding no place on it as of old Following the continental but not the British practice, and also learning from the experience of the Calcutta and Bombay Corporations, the executive functions are

[1] The D M C Act of 1957, Second Schedule

[2] The Delhi Transport Corporation comprises nine members including four non-officials, and the LT Governor of Delhi as its Chairman

[3] Census 1971.

[4] Lok Sabha Debates, Vol. IX, 1957, p 2378 (Pandit G. B Pant).

separated from the deliberative[1] The Corporation and its committees constitute the deliberative wing and they are responsible for policy making, supervision, guidance and control The work of execution is entrusted to professional administrators and technical men The public utility undertakings taken over by the Corporation form an integral part of it, but they are distinct and separate from the general administration wing and enjoy a large degree of autonomy The Corporation is charged with a wide range of duties and vested with adequate powers, but the Central Government retains enough control to act as a check and to step in if there is an emergency

The Corporation And Its Committees

The Councillors And Aldermen.—The Corporation is composed of Councillors and Aldermen. Under the Act, the number of Councillors is to be not less than 80 and not more than 100, and the Scheduled Castes are to have seats reserved for them in proportion to their population strength The precise number of seats is to be fixed after each census by the Government of India on the scale of one Councillor for not more than twenty thousand of the population[2] To start with there were 80 Councillors, 12 of the seats being reserved for the members of the Scheduled Castes[3] The number of Councillors was raised to 100 at the time of 1967 elections There are no *ex-officio* members or representatives of special interests such as trade and industry The Councillors are returned by direct election on the basis of the adult suffrage, all persons entitled to vote at an election to the House of the People (Lok Sabha) being also entitled to vote at the election of these councillors[4] To begin with, there were 22 double-member and 12 triple-member constituencies, with distributive vote, and one seat was reserved for the Scheduled Castes in each of the triple-member constituencies In the elections of February, 1967, there were only single-member constituencies, 13 of the 100 constituencies being reserved for the Scheduled Castes As regards qualifications of the Councillors, they are to be registered voters within the limits of the Corporation, but not necessarily in the ward from which they seek to be returned[5] The other rules follow

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[1] *Ibid*, pp.2383 & 2560 (Pandit G B. Pant)

[2] *The Delhi Municipal Corporation Act* 1957, S 3

[3] *Annual Adm Report of the Municipal Corpn of Delhi* 1958-59, p 2.

[4] *The D M C Act*, 1957, s. 7 (1)

[5] *Ibid*, S. 8 (1)

in general the provisions in respect of the Central and the State Legislatures Great stress is laid upon the exclusion of those who are directly or indirectly in the employ of the Corporation, or have any business or contractual relations of any importance with it[1] The general term of office of the councillors is four years, and the Government of India may extend the period up to one year[2]

Beside the Councillors, there are six Aldermen[3] They are elected at a meeting of the Councillors after each general election from among persons who are qualified to be Councillors, but not Councillors themselves or persons defeated at the elections for those seats[4] Voting is in accordance with the system of proportional representation by means of the single transferable vote and by secret ballot[5] The term of office of the Alderman is the same as that of Councillors[6] The adoption of the institution of Aldermen is based on the experience of Madras and Calcutta The object in view is to obtain the services of persons of great knowledge and experience who are unwilling to go through the rough and tumble of an election fight[7]

The Mayor And The Deputy Mayor.—Every year, at its first sitting, the Corporation elects a Mayor and a Deputy Mayor from amongst its members[8] Voting is by secret ballot If there are more than two candidates, successive ballots are held, eliminating each time the candidate obtaining the smallest number of votes from the contest The balloting continues until one candidate obtains more votes than the remaining candidate or than the aggregate votes of the remaining candidates, as the case may be[9]

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1 *Ibid* S 9

2 *Ibid* S 4

3 *Ibid* S 3(7)

4 *The D M C Act*, 1957, *S* 3(4) & 13(1-2)

5 *Election of Alderman Report*, 1958 Rule 5

6 *Delhi Municipal Corporation Act*, 1957, S 4

7 *Lok Sabha Debates*, Vol IX, p. 2558 (Pandit G B Pant), and *Rajya Sabha Debates, Vol* XIX, pp 2634-6

8 *D M C Act*, 1957, S 35 (1).

9 *Procedure and Conduct of Business Regulation*, 1958, Rule 6 (12-13) and 8

The Mayor is vested with no executive authority, and his main function is to preside over the deliberations of the Corporation and conduct its proceedings[1] Nonetheless, the office is one of great dignity, and if the Mayor is able, he can exercise a great deal of influence over the conduct of administration The Deputy Mayor acts for the Mayor during his temporary absence and holds the office in case of vacancy until a new Mayor is elected The Mayor can delegate to his Deputy, by an order in writing, any of his powers, duties and functions.[2]

Elections And Party Politics.—Since the inception of the Corporation it has been re-constituted four times Although it is against orthodox canons of local administration, national parties have been operating in Delhi municipal life There have been no local parties and even the number of independent members has greatly dwindled The party alignments after the elections have been as follows .

Party	1958		1962		1967		1971	
	Coun-cillors	Alder-men	Coun-cillors	Alder-men	Coun-cillors	Alder-men	Coun-cillors	Alder-men
Congress .	39	3	67	6	40	2	41	3
Jan Sangh	25	2	8		54	3	54	3
Communist Party of India	7		2		2		.	
C P.I (Marxist)							1	.
Republican					1		..	
P S P .								
S.S.P. . . .	—	—	..		1			
Hindu Mahasabha .	1							
Independents .	8	1	3		2	1	3	
Congress (0) .							1	
TOTAL . .	80	6	80	6	100	6	100	6

[1] *Ibid* , Rule 7

[2] *D.M.C. Act* 1957, S 37.

The distinction of being elected the first Mayor was held by Smt. Aruna Asaf Ali, an independent member, while the Deputy Mayor belonged to the Congress Party The next Mayor was the leader of the progressive group Later, from 1960 up to 1967, the Mayors belonged to the Congress Party In 1967, and 1971, Jana Sangh captured the post

The Statutory Committees

While all important matters come up before the Corporation, it committees play an important role in lightening its burdens There are three statutory committees, each of which is placed in charge of the three primary units into which the administration of the Corporation is divided The Standing Committee looks after matters of general municipal administration The Delhi Water Supply and Sewage Disposal Committee and the Delhi Electric Supply Committee are in charge of the conduct and management of the utility undertakings There was also a Statutory Committee to look after the conduct and management of the Delhi Transport Undertaking until November, 1971, when its functions were taken over by the Delhi Transport Corporation These committees enjoy a special status as their powers are derived not from the Corporation but from the statute setting up the Corporation The strength of the Standing Committee is 14, all the seats being filled by election by the Corporation from among its members Each of the other committees has seven members, four elected by the Corporation from among its members, and three nominated by the Central Government from among persons having knowledge and experience of administration and industrial, commercial, financial or labour matters and also having knowledge and experience of matters connected with the respective undertakings, if it deems expedient The Central Government, may increase the strength of the committees in charge of the utility undertakings to a maximum of nine, and that of the elected members on them to six This power has not, however, so far been exercised, and the strength of these committees remains the same as before Voting for the elected seats is in accordance with the system of proportional representation by means of the single transferable vote The tenure of the individual elected members is only two years, one-half of the members who have been longest in the office retiring at the end of each year. The committees elect their own Chairman and Deputy Chairman, the voting proce-

dure being the same as for the Mayor[1] These posts are held in high esteem next only to those of the Mayor and the Deputy Mayor and they are keenly contested There is also a provision for their setting up sub-committees for discharging any of their functions or exercising any of their powers[2]

Besides, the Corporation Act provides for the setting up of the Education Committee and the Rural Areas Committtee The Education Committee is constituted afresh after each general election It has seven members, four elected by the Corporation from among its members and three educationists nominated by it from outside The Rural Areas Committee is composed of all the members of the Corporation representing the six rural wards, and its strength in 1969-70 was 16[3] It is constituted to advise on all general administrative and policy matters concerning the rural areas either on its own initiative or on reference made to it The Corporation and the various municipal authorities are required to refer to it all development schemes and taxation and expenditure proposals concerning rural areas[4]

In 1969-70, there were eight special zonal or ward committees. Shahdara, Civil Lines-Subzimandi, City, Sadar—Paharganj, Karolbagh West Delhi, New Delhi-South, and Rural[5] Besides the Councillors of the zone these committees include one or more Alderman They deal with a wide variety of matters effecting the zones such as sanitation, water supply, street lighting, municipal-markets, etc Besides playing an advisory role it is endowed with certain important specific powers (1) to sanction estimates and plans for works (other than those of the Undertakings) up to Rs 50,000 provided there is specific provision in the Corporation budget (2) to call for reports etc, from the Asstt Commissioner of the zone and review the progress in the fulfilment of the assurances given by him, and (3) to advice the Grants-in-aid Committee in respect of schools, hospitals, etc, in the zone[6]

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[1] *The DMC Act* 1957, S 45 50 & 53 *Procedure and Conduct of Business Regulations*, 1958, *Rules* 51 (5) 52 and 54 (2)

[2] *The D.M C Act* 1957, *S* 65 (1)

[3] *M C D Year* Book 1969-70 P. 24

[4] *The D M C Act*, 1957, *S* 39

[5] *M C D Members Guide*, 1970-71, p. 46-48

[6] *M C D Members Guide*, 1970-71, p 188

Besides these committees for setting up which there is specific provision in the statute, there is also provision for the setting up of special and *ad-hoc* committees at the discretion of the corporation In 1970-71, there were six special committees; Works Committee (15 members) dealing wih engineering works, not connected with the Undertakings, Law and General Purposes Committee (11 members) dealing with legal matters elections assessment and collection, etc. Medical Relief and Public Health Committee (15 members) dealing with sanitation also, and Assurances Committee (7 members) made responsible for reviewing the progress in the fulfilment of the assurances given to the deliberative wing of the Corporation by the Commissioner and for ensuring the implementation of the resolutions passed by the Corporation Gardens Committee (15 members) and Markets Committee (15 members)[1]

A number of *ad-hoc* committees are aso constituted by the Corporation from time to time The following committees functioned in 1969-70, Slum Clearance and Improvement, Hindi, Erection of Statues of National leaders Urban Community Development Social and Physical Education, and Economy Measures

The Administrative System

Appointment To Principal And Subordinate Posts.—The administration of the Corporation is not a unified whole under a single executive It has three main units or divisions, each independent of the other and directly under the Corporation through the concerned Statutory Committee The units are General Administration Delhi Water Supply and Sewage Disposal Undertaking and Delhi Electric Supply Undertaking[2] The General Administration of the Corporation and the Delhi Water Supply and Sewage Disposal Undertaking are headed by the Commissioner,[3] and the Delhi Electricity Supply Undertaking by the General Manager (Electricity)[4] These units have each a separate administrative service account and budget and each of them is under the control of a special committee of the Corporation The Municipal Secretary and the Municipal Chief Auditor and

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[1] *Ibid* · pp 27-30 and 186-7

[2] Until its supersesion in 1971, the Delhi Transport Undertaking was another of the principal units with General Manager (Transport) as its Chief His position was in all matters Similar to that of General Manager (Electricity)

[3] *The D M C Act*, 1957, *S* 59.

Ibid, *S*. 64

their respective establishments are outside these units The Municipal Secretary is secretary not only of the Corporation but also of all its committees and sub-committees He is responsible for maintaining minutes of their proceedings and has custody of the papers [1] The Municipal Chief Auditor is in charge of audit of accounts of all the units of the Corporation and he has to see that there is no transgression of rules and regulations and cannons of financial propriety.[2]

As regards the mode of appointment of the principal officers of the Corporation the Commissioner is appointed by the Government of India for a term of five years in the first instance, and he may be granted extension for a term not exceeding one year at a time [3] He can be deprived of his office by the appointing authority on the ground of incompetency, negligence or misconduct The Corporation is vested with only a limited control; if it passes a resolution for his removal by a majority of not less than three-fifths of the total number of members, the Government of India is enjoined to act upon it [4] The General Manager of the Electricity is apppointed by the Corporation, with the approval of the Central Government for a term of five years He may be granted with similar approval, extensions for a term not exceeding five years at a time He can be removed from office by the Corporation on the ground of neglect misconduct or incapacity, provided a resolution to that effect is passed at a special meeting by a majority of not less than three-fifths of the total number of members [5]

The other principal officers of the Corporation are the Chief Engineer (Water Supply), the Municipal Engineer, the Municipal Health Officer, the Education Officer, the Municipal Chief Accountant, the Municipal Secretary the Municipal Chief Auditor and the Deputy Commissioners The Municipal Chief Auditor is appointed by the Corporation with the previous approval of the Government of India, and his probity and independence are secured by making him ineligible for holding any other office under the Corporation after he has ceased to hold this office All the other officers are appointed by the Corporation, and these appointments are subject to

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[1] *Municipal Secretary (Powers, Duties and Functions)*

[2] *DMC Act*, 1957, SS 204-9

[3] *Ibid* S 54 (1-2)

[4] *DMC Act* 1957, *S* 54 (3)

[5] *Ibid*, S 60(1-3)

confirmation by the Central Government except in the case of the Municipal Secretary and the Municipal Chief Accountant[1]

The power to create subordinate posts and recruit necessary staff is vested in the Corporation and its committees and the heads of the administrative units The Union Public Service Commission is required to be consulted in making appointments to the posts of the General Managers of the utility undertakings and to all posts carrying a minimum monthly salary of Rs 350/- or more It need not be consulted in respect of acting or temporary posts for a period not exceeding one year and also in respect of such ministerial posts as are specified by the Corporation in consultation with the Commission when such posts are to be filled by promotion[2] The consultative procedure is laid down by the regulations framed by the Commission in 1969[3] All these provisions ensure that the appointments of the administrative heads and senior and subordinate officers of the Corporation are not subject to political pressures and party influence

Administrative Set-up.—The administrative arrangements are necessarily fluid and change from time to time In the general set up as it stood in 1958-59 apart from the two General Managers for Delhi Transport Undertaking and D E S U on the general administration side, the Commissioner had the assistance of two Deputy Commissioners and three Assistant Commissioners The Deputy Commissioner (Establishment) had under him Municipal Engineer's Department Chief Engineer (Water's) Department, Drainage Engineer's Department Education Department Fire Brigade, Licensing Department and the Labour Welfare Department Those under the Deputy Commissioner (General) included Health Department Assessor & Collector Department, Terminal Tax Department, Liaison Office, General Questions relating to Delhi Municipal Corporation Act framing of by-laws etc , Gardnes, Markets, Lands & Estates Branch, Purchase & Stores, and Ayurvedic Dispensaries

The position, as in 1971, is briefly as follows The Municipal Commissioner had, under the existing set up, five deputies to assist him in the supervision of the work of the various

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1 *Ibid* S 89

2 *DMC Act*, 1957, SS 96-7

3 *Union Public Service Commission (Consultation by the D M C) Regulation* 1969

departments of the Corporation besides the General Manager of D E S U Till November 1971 he had the assistance of the General Manager, D T U, also The distribution of the departments amongst the five Deputy Commissioners was as follows.—

Administrative set up of Delhi Municipal Corporation

(October 1971)

Commissioner

- General Wing
- Deputy Commissioner (Water)
- General Manager (D E S U)
- General Manager (DTU)*

General Wing

Dy Commissioner (Slum)	Deputy Commissioner (Estt)	Deputy Commissioner (Taxes)	Deputy Commissioner (G A)
1 Slum Housing Deptt	1 Estt Deptt	1 Assessment & Collection Deptt	1 Licencing & enforcement deptt
2 Town Planning Deptt.	2 Education Department	2 Labour welfare Department	2 Land & estimates.
3 Engineering Deptt	3 Health Department	3 Factories Deptt	3 Veterinary Deptt
4 Building Deptt	4 Vigilance Deptt	4 T T. Deptt	4 Caretaker
5 Coordination Cell		5 Urban Community services deptt.	5. Press Manager Ptg & Stn
6 Garden deptt		6 Ogan & Method Office	6 Legal & prosecution
7 Press & information office.		7, Central Office	7 Central Purchas
8 Remunerative Project Cell		8 Advt Section	8 General matter
			9 Hindi/Urdu
			10 Rehabilitation of Feriwalas & Khokawalas

*Not under Delhi Municipal Corpoation from November, 1971.

While this is the general setup of the Corporation Secretariat the municipal area is divided for administrative purposes into eight zones[1] each with a special zonal council as stated earlier Besides their general responsibilities the Deputy Commissioners supervise the work of the zonal councils

D C. (Taxes)	D C (Water)	D C (Estt)	D C (Slum)	D C (General)
1 Civil Line zone 2 Karol Bagh	3 Rural zone	4 New Delhi South zone 5 West Zone	6 City zone 7 Sadar Paharganj	8 Shahdara zone

The charges on establishment in relation to total expenditure were in 1969-70 as follows —

(In lakhs of rupees)

	Total expenditure	Expenditure on Estt	%
Corporation General Administration .	2,311 08	1,262 42	54
Water-Supply and Sewage Disposal Undertaking . .	897 83	149 98	16 7
Delhi Electric Supply Undertaking	N A *	346 83	20 6
Delhi Transport Undertaking . . .	920 71	391 81	42 9

*N A —Not Available

Obligatory and discretionary functions of the Corporation.—In general terms, the Corporation is charged with the municipal administration of Delhi Its functions, under the statute, are two-fold obligatory and discretionary[2] The former include all those generally associated with municipal government, measures for the maintenance of public health and sanitation

[1] See Appendix IV for the particulars of the Circles included in each of the zones

[2] *The D M C Act*, 1957, SS 42-3

such as protected water supply, drainage, scavenging and cleansing of streets and public places, slum clearance, vaccination, inoculation and other measures to check the spread of infectious diseases etc, construction, maintenance and lighting of roads, issue of building licenses, maintenance of mortuaries and cremation grounds, opening and maintenance of marketing centres, registration of births and deaths, fire brigade and protection against fire, etc The Corporation is also responsible for the establishment and maintenance of hospitals dispensaries and maternity and child welfare centres, and the carrying out of other measures necessary for public medical relief and for providing adequate facilities for imparting primary education In addition, the Corporation has as part of its obligatory duties certain activities generally associated with private enterprise, namely, the generation and supply of electricity and the running of transport services *

The list of the discretionary functions entrusted to the Corporation is quite impressive measures for educational and cultural development, including establishment and maintenance of, and grant of aid to, libraries, museums, art galleries, botanical or zoological collections gymnasia *akharas* and sport centres, public entertainment through music etc in places of public resort and by the establishment of theatres and cinemas making provision for the sick and the needy by constructing and maintaining poor houses infirmaries, children's homes, houses for the deaf and the dumb and for disabled and handicapped children, homes for destitute and disabled persons, and asylums for persons of unsound mind and public utility and welfare measures such as establishment and management of swimming pools, public wash-houses and bathing places maintenance of municipal dairy farms, organisation and management of cottage industries, handicraft centres and sales emporium, construction and maintenance of ware-houses and godowns and of garages sheds and stands for vehicles and cattle biers, and housing accommodation for the public There is also a general provision empowering the Corporation to undertake "any measure not hereinbefore specifically mentioned likely to promote public safety, health convenience or general welfare"[1] Unlike under the old Punjab Municipalities Act of 1911, the sanction of Government is not necessary for doing so There is thus nothing to bar the Corporation from undertaking any welfare activity permitted by its resources

*Not with the Corporation from Nov 1971

[1] *The Delhi Municipal Corpn Act*, 1957 S, 43 (2a)

A brief review of the activities of the Corporation would give a general idea of the functions actually undertaken by it Because of the very complexity of the administration of a large city, the Corporation bears an onerous burden in carrying out its normal municipal duties which are obligatory such as maintenance of public roads and buildings, scavenging and cleansing of the city public health operations like anti-epidemic measures, and maintenance of parks, marketing centres, cremation grounds, etc Water supply and sewage disposal are part of the activities of most Indian municipalities The Water Supply and Sewage Disposal supplied 152 00 M gals of filtered water in 1968-69 besides water for industrial use and gardens etc The consumption of filtered water has risen from 29 40 gallons in 1951-52 to 44 70 gallons in 1968-69 per capita The disposal of sewage is also a major function, and the three plants set up for the purpose handle 98M Gs per day[1] The Transport and Electricity Supply Undertakings are comparatively new ventures The Delhi Electric Supply Undertaking maintains two main thermal power stations and three Diesel Stations with an aggregate installed capacity of 226 0 M W and it imports 80 M W from the Bhakhra-Nangal system The maximum peak demand has been 317 54 M W, including 74 M W from Haryana State Electricity Board and Khakra Management Board Industries, households etc, are the major consumers Besides all the villages of the Union Territory have been electrified The total street light points are 74,485 and the tube-well connections for agricultural purposes are 2,884[2] The fleet strength of D T U has gone up from 516 in 1958-59 to 1,203 in 1968-69 The D T U maintained on the average 933 buses on road per day, operated over 188 34 kms daily per bus and carried 819 passengers per bus daily as compared to daily average of 370 buses carrying 782 passengers per bus and operating 198 80 km during the above period The daily passenger traffic has increased from 2 89 lakhs in 1958-59 to over ten lakhs in 1971-72

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[1] *M C D Year Book* 1969-70, pp 172-180

[2] *M C D Year Book*, 1969-70, p 183

The progress made in the field of education would be seen from the following

	1958-59	1968-69
(a) No of schools		
Nursery	7	33
Primary	542	802
Middle[1]	88	413
Higher Secondary	8	11
(b) Enrolment at all levels	1,63,585	4,25,853
(c) No of teachers	4,858	13,600
(d) Expenditure	91 79 lakhs	557 691 lakhs

Special mention may be made of system of mid-day meals and distribution of uniforms and books to poor students and of scholarships instituted as a special incentive to meritorious students[2] Physical education and adult-literacy are also receiving attention The Corporation has set up the Community Service Department to give an impetus to community development programmes and reorient the outlook of the people There are 37 Social Education Centres and 62 Vikas Mandals (Citizens Development) Councils and Vikas Parishads (Neighbourhood Councils) They form the nuclei for initiating community activities in the broad fields of public health and sanitation, physical improvements of the locality, social, cultural and recreational endeavours, etc, volunteer corps, Bal clubs, Mahila Mandals come within the scope of its activity[3]

[1] All the Higher Secondary & Middle Schools were transferred to Delhi Administration on 1-7-1970

[2] *M C.D. Year Book*, 1969-70 pp 98-100

[3] *M C.D. Year Book*, 1969-70, pp 131-2

Medical relief was another major field of activity In 1969-70, the Corporation maintained, six major Allopathic hospitals—S J T B Hospital, Hindu Rao Hospital Victoria Zanana Hospital, I D Hospital, Mrs Girdhari Lal Hospital (Maternity) and General Hospital, Shahdara—and one Ayurvedic hospital at Ballimaran Besides it maintained a number of colony hospitals, health centres and dispensaries at different centres — Allopathic 51 (two of these mobile dispensaries), Ayurvedic 28, Unani seven and Homoeopathic one There were also six T B Clinics and two leprosy homes and clinics As regards maternity and child welfare there were 66 main and 32 sub-centres in different parts There were also 34 whole-time family planning centres Veterinary services were available at 20 centres Of the special health measures taken, mention may be made of the Corporation's participation in the National Malaria Eradication Programme and the maintenance of an electric crematorium

Slum clearance is one of the major activities of the Corporation since 1959 when this work was taken over from the Delhi Development Authority In 1969-70, the number of tenements and shops constructed and mostly allotted were 2 908 and 24 respectively The expenditure on this important field of activity was Rs 29 lakhs in 1966-67 Rs 30 lakhs in 1967-68 and **Rs** 22 8 lakhs in the year 1968-69

Financial Resources

As regards the financial resources of the Corporation its revenues are derived from taxation, Government grants and loans The taxes it is empowered to levy fall into two groups

Obligatory Taxes

(1) Property taxes namely water tax scavenging tax, fire tax and general tax on the rateable value of lands and buildings

(2) Tax on vehicles and animals

(3) Theatre tax

(4) Tax on advertisements other than advertisements in the newspaper

(5) Duty on the transfer of property

(6) Tax on buildings payable alongwith the application for sanction of the building plan

The maximum scale of duty leviable under various items is laid down in the Act itself[1] In the case of the water tax, scavenging tax and fire tax, the rates are left to the discretion of the Corporation

Discretionary Taxes:

(1) Education cess

(2) Tax on professions, trades callings and employments

(3) Tax on the consumption or sale of electricity

(4) Betterment tax on the increase in urban land values caused by the execution of any development or improvement work

(5) Tax on boats

(6) Tolls[2]

If the Corporation is desirous of levying any of these discretionary taxes it has at first to pass a resolution "defining the maximum rate of the tax to be levied the class or classes of persons or the description or descriptions of articles and properties to be taxed the system of assessment to be adopted and the exemptions if any to be granted" After such a resolution has been passed and duly approved by the Government of India, it is free to levy the tax subject to the terms and conditions of the resolution[4]

In addition to the taxes referred to above the Central Government may give a share of the proceeds of the terminal tax, tax on motor vehicles, entertainment tax and betting tax collected in Delhi to the Corporation as well as the other local bodies Before this is done Parliament has to make necessary appropriation by law[5]

With the permission of the Government of India, the Corporation may borrow from the open market on the strength of its revenues, and provision is made for the maintenance of sinking funds for the return of loans[6]

[1] *The D. M C Act*, 1957, S 114 and Schedules III-VI

[2] *Ibid*, S 113 (2)

[3] *Ibid*, S 150 (1)

[4] *Ibid.*, S 150 (2-3)

[5] *The D. M. C Act* 1957, SS 178-84

[6] *Ibid*, SS 185 and 190

Loans apart, the revenue receipts of the Corporation fall under three broad heads (1) Income from taxes which the Corporation is authorised to raise and rents fees and fines, domestic income, (2) share from Assigned Taxes, *viz*, terminal tax entertainment tax and tax on motor vehicles and (3) grants from Government Appendix VI gives the income of the Corporation during 1968-69 from these different sources Appendix V gives the summary statement of income and expenditure for the same period Since the inception of the Corporation in 1958-59 the total revenue receipts increased from Rs 498 lakhs to Rs 1953 lakhs and total revenue expenditure from Rs 455 lakhs to Rs 1829 lakhs in 1968-69 in both the cases a nearly fourfold increase[1] It may also be mentioned that the domestic income and the Assigned Taxes have become more important, and the dependence on government grants is now considerably less, the proportion of the taxes to total income has decreased from 25 1% in 1958-59 to 15 7% in 1969-70

Proceedings of The Corporation

In addition to setting up the Corporation, the Corporation Act lays down the respective powers of the Municipal authorities, namely the four statutory committees, the Commissioner and the General Managers of the Electricity and Transport Undertakings, in respect of recruitment, expenditure sanction and other matters While important matters especially those involving major policy questions come up before the Corporation, a number of matters of lesser importance are disposed of by the concerned statutory committee or the administrative head as provided under the Act The Act also provides in detail for regulating many aspects of civic life, water supply, conservancy and sanitation, disposal of sewage construction and maintenance of roads etc The object of the provisions is primarily to define the powers and duties of the Corporation authorities and to provide safeguards against abuse of authority Within these limits, the Corporation has vast opportunities to serve the civic community, and as already noted, the primary limitation is one of finance only Subject to the provisions of the Act, the Corporation may make bye-laws and regulations which would come into force on being approved by the Government of India

As regards budgetary procedure, the estimates of the four units of the Corporation, General Administration, Delhi Water Supply and Sewage Disposal Undertaking, Delhi Electric Supply

[1] *MDC Year Book*, 1969-70, pp 48-49

Undertaking, and Delhi Transport Undertaking are prepared separately by the administrative heads of the units, and are examined by the statutory committees concerned before submission to the Corporation The Standing Committee prescribes the form in which the estimates are to be prepared by all the units of the Corporation It also acts as a co-ordinating body, and reports on the budget estimates of its sister statutory committees to the Corporation The revision of municipal taxes, rates and cesses is also undertaken at the same time The budget has to be adopted by the 31st March of each year During the course of the year, the statutory committees are empowered to make reductions and permit transfers within a "budget grant" The Commissioner and the General Managers may effect on their own authority transfers within a "minor head" up to a maximum of Rs 5,000 Sanction of an additional budget grant, increase in the amount of a budget grant transfer from one head of account to another, imposition of new taxes and enhancement of the rate of existing tax can only be effected by the Corporation [1]

Control By The Central Government

Under the Corporation Act, the relationship between the Central Government and the Corporation is basically the same as that between a State Government and a municipal body The size and importance of the Corporation does no doubt make it more independent in practice, but this does not affect its legal position The Administrator of the Union Territory of Delhi forms the link between the Corporation and the Government. Copies of the minutes of the proceedings of the Corporation are required to be sent to him, and he is entitled to call for any papers laid before that body or any of its committees [2] As regards the role of the Central Government in the Corporation's affairs, it has certain important constitutional functions The rules and regulations to provide for matters of detail and to set the machinery in motion were framed by it and some of the important bye-laws as required by the different sections of the Corporation Act are drawn up by it [3] It has certain supervisory and controlling powers of the highest significance As already noted, its approval for the appointment of all the principal officers of the Corporation is required, and it appoints all the specialist members on the

[1] *The DMC Act*, 1957, SS 139-11 *Budget Estimates Regulation*, 1958
[2] *The DMC Act*, 1957, S 87
[3] Vide *Manual of Rules & Regulations* 1959 *and Manual of Bye-laws* (1959)

statutory committees The bye-laws and regulations framed by the Corporation are approved by the Central Government before coming into force Its approval is required on certain specific administrative matters—city improvement schemes, declaration of a rural area to be an urban area, exemption of rural areas from any of the provisions of the Corporation Act levy of differential rates of taxes and cesses in favour of rural areas etc [1] The Central Government comes in also as an arbitrator in disputes betwen the Corporation and the other local bodies of the Union Territory of Delhi in respect of water supply, sewage disposal and cost of supply of electricity [2] It has finally a reserve of power to interfere on any matter and enforce its views, if it is of opinion that any duty imposed upon the Corporation has not been performed or has been performed in an imperfect, insufficient or unsuitable manner" [3] If the affairs of the Corporation are in a very bad state it can as a last resort supersede the Corporation, take over its functions and report to Parliament [4]

The New Delhi Municipal Committee

The considerations which led to the exclusion of a portion of New Delhi from the jurisdiction of the Municipal Corporation of Delhi have already been stated The jurisdiction of the New Delhi Municipal Committee now extends over (42 74 Sq Kms) as against 85Kms over which it had control earlier The localities coming within its range are the Rashtrapati Bhavan and the Secretariat buildings, Sardar Patel Marg, Talkatora Gardens Mandir Marg, Panchkuin Road—Blocks 85 and 85A Cannaught Circus, Bengali-Market, Sikandra-Road, Tilak Marg, Kaka Nagar, Shan Nagar, Rabindra Nagar three-fourths of the Lodi Colony, Safdarjang, Kidwai Nagar, Sarojini Nagar, Lakshmi Bai Nagar, Netaji Nagar ,Diplomatic Enclave and the eastern side of Moti Bagh The population of New Delhi the present territorial jurisdiction of N D M C is 2 93 Lakhs according to 1971 census as against 2 61 Lakhs as per 1961 census

The New Delhi Municipal Committee continues to be governed by the Punjab Municipalities Act, No III of 1911 The in advisability of having a democratic set-up for the municipal administration of New Delhi being the main reason for its exclusio

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1 *The DMC Act* 1957, SS 272 (2) & 507

2 *Ibid.* SS 266, 268(1) & 285

3 *Ibid.* SS 487-8

4 *Ibid.* S 490

from the Municipal Corporation of Delhi, the Committee continued to be composed of only nominated members but comprising both officials and non-officials At first, an official majority was maintained.

In July, 1958, there were eight officials as against seven non-officials As reconstituted in October, 1959, it came to have five officials and four non-officials A non-official majority was conceded at the time of reconstitution in October 1968—five officials and six non-officials All the members were at first nominated by the Chief Commissioner of the Delhi Administration with the approval of the Government of India in the Ministry of Home Affairs The members are now nominated by the Lt Governor of Delhi On 31st March, 1970, the official members were (1) the President of the Committee, (2) the Deputy Financial Adviser, Ministry of Home Affairs, Government of India, (3) the Deputy Adviser (Public Health Engineering), Department of Family Planning and Urban Development, Ministry of Health, Govt of India, (4) the Chief Welfare Officer, Ministry of Home Affairs, Govt of India and (5) the Director of Education Delhi Administration From October, 1958 the Deputy Commissioner, Delhi, ceased to be either the President of the Committee or its member A whole time officer from the cadre of the Indian Administrative Service is now appointed as President There are two Vice-Presidents as before Senior and Junior, and both are elected annually by the Committee from among its non-official[1] members Under the bye-laws, the sub-committees constituted by the New Delhi Municipal Committee are to have at least three members of whom the Municipal Secretary is to be one One 31st March 1969, there were the following 18 sub-committees

1 Establishment, Vigilance and Selection
2 Budget, Finance and Grant
3 Plans
4 Allotment
5 Health and Sanitation
6 Licensing
7 Social Welfare
8. Community Hall
9 Works
10 Education

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[1] *N D.M.C Report*, 1968-69 p.1

11 Purchase and Condemnation
12 Commercial Projects
13 Libraries and Reading Rooms
14 Horticulture
15 Kiosks
16 Hindi
17 Swimming Pools, and
18 Compassionate Grounds

The number of these sub-committees was reduced to ten in 1971 due to the combining of the two or more sub-committees concerned senior officers of the Municipality act as convenors The recommendations of the sub-committees are placed before the main committee

The President of the committee is the head of the municipal administration In his absence the Senior Vice-President exercises all his powers and discharges all his functions

In administrative matters, the President is assisted by the following heads of departments —Municipal Secretary Medical Officer of Health, Chief Engineer (Electrical), Chief Engineer (Civil), Commercial and Taxation Officer, Financial Adviser Vigilance Officer and Chief Architect The Municipal Secretary is in-charge of all matters not dealt with by any other department and within his purview comes Establishment, General Administration, enforcement of Municipal laws and bye-laws Labour Welfare, Education, Public Relations and Accounts The heads of departments have a number of deputies to assist them The Municipal Secretary has under him some gazetted officers viz, Accounts Officer, three Asstt Secretaries, Education Officer, Public Relation Officer and Labour Welfare Officer The Chief Engineer (Electrical) receives assistance from as many as eight electrical engineers and 24 asstt electrical engineers The Chief Engineer (Civil), is assisted by 7 municipal engineers and 29 asstt civil engineers The Commercial and Taxation Officer is assisted by two deputies i e, Asstt Secretary (Rates) and Asstt Engineer (Water) The Financial Advisor is assisted by a Finance Officer and two Asstt Finance Officers and the Chief Architect has one Sr Architect, one Architect, one Architect-Planner and four Dy and seven Asstt Architects The Medical Officer of Health is assisted by two Asstt Medical Officers of Health The heads of departments are taken on deputation from various Government

Departments, while the remaining staff is either recruited directly by the Committee or taken on deputation. The accounts of the N D M C. are audited by the Examiner, Local Fund Accounts, Delhi Administration Staff strength on 31st March 1968 was 5861 (including 191 supervisory staff) which increased to 6275 (including 257 supervisory staff) in 1969

A summary statement of the income and expenditure of the Committee during 1968-69 is given at Appendix-VII Its total ordinary income during the year was Rs 741 04 lakhs and expenditure was Rs 561 67 lakhs The income and expenditure has gone up nearly three times during 1958-59 and 1968-69 The loan liabilities had been almost stationary at Rs 257 69 lakhs at the close of 1968-69 as against Rs 244 ·98 lakhs in 1958-59 The principal taxes levied were house tax, duty on transfer of property and building fee The Committee also received its share of the Assigned Taxes from Government viz, terminal tax, entertainment tax and tax on motor vehicles Of the total income from taxes (Rs 218 19 lakhs) during 1968-69, the house tax accounted for Rs 81 10 lakhs and the Assigned Tax Rs 129 47 The remaining taxes accounted only for Rs 8 62 lakhs (Appendix VII) The distribution of the electricity and water undertaken by the Committee yielded sizeable profits during 1968-69 resulting into a surplus of Rs 69 lakhs in respect of electricity and Rs 37 29 lakhs in respect of water after allowing to the heavy expenditure of Rs 292 02 lakhs out of an income of Rs 361 35 from electricity and Rs 33 26 lakhs out of income of Rs 70 55 lakhs from water supply The Delhi Administration grants amounted only to Rs 17 96 lakhs in respect of education, just 2 3 per cent of the ordinary income of the Committee The principal items of public welfare expenditure in 1968-69 with the corresponding figures for 1958-59 were as follows .—

(in lakhs of rupees)

	1958-59	1968 69
Education	15 80	52 33
Medical & Public Health	31 71	63 79
Maintenance of Roads	2 11	34 03
Arboriculture	0 86	11 93
Sewage Disposal	11 08	9 00

Since the headquarters of the Govt of India are located at New Delhi, the New Delhi Municipal Committee has a special responsibility for maintaining the highest standards of service in discharging functions which are normal to Indian muncipalities In the middle of 1968-69, it was maintaining three higher secondary schools, one for boys and two for girls, two middle schools, 61 primary schools, and four nursery schools The number of students in these institutions were 22,214 at the primary school stage, 1,465 at the middle school stage and 3,100 at the secondary school stage with fairly adequate resources and easy accessibility to the educational knowhow It was able to maintain a fairly high standard both in the field of formal education and also extra curricular activities The Committee maintained 23 reading rooms in different localities and a special children's library Besides, the Committee maintained 21 social education centres, six for men and 15 for women The main object of running these centres was to spread literacy and, in the case of women to impart training in tailoring As regards provision of medical facilities the Committee's record has been commendable In 1969-70, it maintained a hospital equipped with 36 beds and specialist services and seven Allopathic and three Ayurvedic dispensaries It had 13 maternity and child welfare centres and four principal family planning centres A veterinary hospital was also maintained Little need be said of the maintenance and development of other civic amenities—sanitation and public health, roads, street lighting, etc Reference need be made only to some of the special noteworthy activities The Committee has taken upon itself the responsibility of distributing electricity and water to all residents within its jurisdiction, buying in bulk from the public utility undertakings of the Municipal Corporation of Delhi The community hall, set up in 1954 with the funds provided by the Ford Foundation, is a unique institution, comprising of a number of public welfare units—primary school, nursery school, public reading room and library, audit education centre, general dispensary, child guidance clinic, vocational guidance clinic, family planning clinic, mental health and personality counselling clinic, sewing section and youth club In recent years, it has launched upon commercial and multipurpose projects and a massive beautification drive The former include two shopping centres, one hotel, two office buildings, one multistoreyed garage, one cinema hall and one subway, the total cost ranging to over Rs five crores The work on the office blocks, the shopping centres and the cinema has been completed The beautification drive which, among others, include provision of triangular parks at junctions and fountains is giving an entirely new look to New Delhi The well-

known popular gardens—Lodi Garden, Nehru Park and Talkatora Garden—have been improved and developed in a number of ways

The Delhi Development Authority

The Delhi Development Authority, which has been constituted under Central Act 61 of 1957, is the successor to the Delhi Improvement Trust and the Delhi Development (Provisional) Authority, but with more extensive jurisdiction and powers It came into being on 30 December, 1957 Its membership, under the law, was as follows (in 1970) .—

Lt Governor, Delhi (Chairman) *ex-officio*

Vice-Chairman

Finance Member

Engineer Member

Commissioner of the Delhi Municipal Corporation

Two representatives of the Delhi Municipal Corporation elected by the Councillors and Aldermen from among themselves

Three representatives of the Metropolitan Council

Three nominees of the Government of India, one of whom should have experience in town planning [1] The Vice-Chairman, the Finance Member and the Engineer Member are appointed by the Government of India and are whole-time employees of the Authority

An Advisory Council is attached to the Authority It has twenty members including the Chairman of the Authority, who is its *ex-officio* President Ten of its members are nominated by the Central Government—one representative of the Health Services of the Delhi Administration, four from the technical departments of the Central Government, two with knowledge of town planning or architecture, and three other persons of the last group, one is for representatives of commerce and industry, and another for the representatives of labour, in Delhi, the third seat is open, being not

[1] *Delhi Development Authority*, 1970, p 6

ear-marked for any specific interest The Delhi Municipal Corporation has four representatives on the Council, while the Delhi Electric Supply Committee, the Delhi Transport Committee and the Delhi Water Supply and Sewage Disposal Committee has a representative each, duly elected by the respective bodies There are also three members of Parliament, two from the Lok Sabha and one from the Rajya Sabha elected by the respective Houses The term of office of the elected members is four years provided they continue to be members of the parent body during the period[1]

The Central Government appoints the Secretary and the Chief Accounts Officer of the Authority and the rest of the staff are appointed by the Authority itself[2] The prior approval of the Central Government is required for the creation of or appointment to a Class I post[3]

The problems confronting the Authority have indeed been stupendous Prior to Independence, Delhi the Capital of successive imperial dynasties for nearly a thousand years, had grown in size and importance, and it was also a major commercial centre of the north The old city was typically medieval with houses jampacked along lanes and bylanes serving as highway The great congestion and highly insanitary conditions made it, despite its opulence and affluence, one great slum in most of its parts With Delhi becoming the Capital of India once again in 1912, there grew along side the twin city of New Delhi with its spacious layouts and fine land The even tenor of its slow growth was disturbed by the flood of refugees in the wake of the Partition and other factors The population of the two cities shot up from 6 95 lakhs in 1941 to 14 37 lakhs in 1951, 23 59 lakhs in 1961 Settlements were hastily improvised, and urban development was in the first few years highly irregular and hap-hazard The constitution of the Delhi Development Authority in 1957 to take matters in hand and guide their growth on proper lines did not come any too early

To begin with in consultation with the Town and Country Planning Organisation, the Authority drew up a Master Plan laying down the objectives and the pattern of development and also the plan and programmes up to 1981 The plan was approved by the Government of India in September, 1962 and came into

[1] *The Delhi Development Authority*, 1970, p 6

[2] *Ibid*, S 4

[3] *Delhi Development (Misc) Rules*, 1959, *Rule* 3

force The detailed implementation of the Plan is the concern of a number of bodies principally the Delhi Administration, the Delhi Municipal Corporation and its Statutory Undertakings, the New Delhi Municipal Committee, the Central Public Works Department and the Ministry of Works, Housing & Urban Development The primary and overall responsibility for its success is, however, that of the Delhi Development Authority

As for the broad objectives and the pattern of development, Delhi has been a centre of commerce, finance and services, it has not been basically an industrial city The Master Plan considered it undesirable to convert it into an "industrial town", but there was to be a reasonable provision for industrial development "with a view to finding employment for those who would find their way into city and also for the purpose of servicing the population in the city" The further growth of the city was to be strictly according to the plan set forth The location of industries, commercial centres, residential colonies, educational institutions, etc were all mapped out The congestion in the old city was to be gradually lessened and the new slums that were cropping up were to be liquidated Provision of roads and communication facilities, supply of water and electricity, etc to meet future needs were to be foreseen and to be provided for Speculation was to be checked and the interests of the genuine users were to be protected by every measure possible The growth of population envisaged as valid for 1981 was 55 lakhs, later revised to 60 89 lakhs Development plans were to take note of four regional units (1) Delhi—New Delhi urban area, present and future—440 sq kms, (2) rural areas in Delhi territory 1036 sq Kms, (3) Metropolitan Area that is, towns whose development was intextricably bound with that of the capital city, *viz* Ghaziabad, Faridabad, Bahadurgarh and Narela—about 2072 sq kms, and (4) the National Capital Region, covering more distant towns which may be said to fall within the zone of influence of Delhi, *viz*, Modinagar, Muradnagar, Meerut, Baghpet, Hapur, Bulandshahr and Khurja in Uttar Pradesh and Rewari, Jhajjar, Sonepal, Panipat, Rohtak and Ballabhgarh in Haryana—about 11,655 sq kms One of the principal objects of the Plan was to ensure the development of the ring towns so that the flow of population from the contiguous States to Delhi might be diverted towards them Obviously, success in this respect would largely depend upon the imginative co-operation of the concerned States —Delhi, Uttar Pradesh and Haryana A sum of Rs five crores was placed at the disposal of the Delhi Development Authority as a revolving fund for financing the projects of the Master Plan.

In the years that have followed the adoption of the Master Plan, the achievements of the Delhi Development Authority and the progress made in different directions up to 1970 may be briefly noted

As regards acquisition and development of land, of the 72,000 acres notified under Section 4 of the Land Acquisition Act of 1894, 33,000 acres were finally acquired About 20,000 acres were allocated to the Delhi Development Authority for residential, industrial, institutional, commercial and recreational use, 3 500 acres for the resettlement of squatters and jhuggi-jhonpri dwellers, and 4,000 acres to Government and Semi-Government agencies for their development schemes The remaining area is being afforsted or let out for temporary cultivations

Of the land at the disposal of the Delhi Development Authority, about 2,000 acres have been developed and converted into plots, roughly 20,000 residential plots, either directly or through co-operative societies, 52,000 plots for jhuggi-jhonpri dwellers, 4,558 plots for shifting of non-conforming industries and about 5 000 plots for commercial purposes

A major concern of the Authority is slum improvement and clearance affecting about 50,000 families and rehabilitation of about 80 000 jhuggi-jhonpri dwellers squatting on unauthorised land under most insanitary conditions The evictees are provided tenements in multi-storeyed buildings constructed in cleared areas such as the Dujana House near Jama Masjid or on new camping site In the process of re-adjustment, care is taken to provide all civic amenities including educational and medical facilities The number of families rehabiltated directly by the Authority or through the Delhi Municipal Corporation have been 43,000 up to the year 1970

Besides acquisition and development of land, the Authority has taken upon itself the task of building residential houses on no profit no loss basis for low-income (less than Rs 7 200 per annum) and middle income (Rs 7 200 to Rs 18,000 per annum) groups The cost of the houses intended for the former ranges from Rs 12,000 to Rs 18 000 and of those intended for the later from Rs 22 500 to about Rs 35,000 The houses are made available on easy terms, including architecture The demand has been very great, upto April 1971, the low-income group houses built were 3,751 and the middle-income group houses 1855 The subsequent plan was to build 6,600 and 2416 houses in respect of the two groups by March 1972

Besides development of residential areas, the Authority is attending to other aspects as well A number of industrial complexes are being developed for locating small scale and big industries like the Naraina Industrial Complex, Mayapuri Industrial Complex, Ware-Housing and Mineral Siding at Kirti Nagar, and Okhla Industrial Area In the development of these areas, special attention is paid for providing residential accommodation for industrial labour Similarly, to diversify commercial activity, special trading centres are proposed to be developed in Kalkaji and East Patel Nagar. Reference may also be made to the plan in progress for shifting the wholesale cycle market from the *khokhas* at Esplanade Road to the Jhandewala Extension and the construction of the impressive Inter-State Bus Terminal outside Kashmire Gate

Appendix VIII and IX giving the financial layouts of the Authority under various schemes would present some idea of the work being done, though it may not give the whole picture as many other bodies are also participating in the execution of the schemes

Delhi Cantonment Board

The Delhi Cantonment, like New Delhi has been excluded from the jurisdiction of the Municipal Corporation of Delhi It is classified as a Class I Cantonment on the basis of civil population It extends over an area of 42 89 sq kms and has seven small villages also The total population of Delhi Cantt according to 1971 census is 57,030 as against 36,105 in 1961 The Cantonment Board in charge of its municipal administration was set up in 1938 under the Cantonments Act (Act-II) of 1924 There are at present 14 members of the Board 7 elected and 7 nominated inclusive of 4 *ex-officio* members The nominated members are the Officer Commanding the Station the Garrison Engineer, the Health Officer and the First Class Magistrate, all *ex-officio* and three other military officers appointed by the Station Commander The elected members are returned by direct election by the civilian residents of the Cantonment on the basis of adult suffrage Both civil and military residents are eligible to vote There are seven single member constituencies of which one ward is reserved for a member of the Scheduled Castes The Officer Commanding the Station is the President of the Board The Vice President is elected by the elcted members from among themselves

The Board has constituted two committees, namely the Civil Area Committee and the Finance Committee The former is

set up under Section 43-A of the Cantonments Act 1924, and the latter under the Business Regulation framed by the Board The Civil Area Committee deals with the matters pertaining to the *Bazar* or Civil area, health sanitation leasing of lands for building or other purposes, sub-division and extension of sites, regularisation or removal of encroachments, issue of licenses for temporary occupation of land, and erection or re-erection of buildings It consists of all the elected members of the Board, the Senior Executive Medical Officer (S E M O) and the Garrison Engineer, with the Vice-President of the Board as its Chairman The Finance Committee consists of five members elected by the Board, of whom three are to be from elected members and two from nominated If the Vice-President is not one of its members, the Chairman is elected by the Committee itself The meetings of both the Board and the Committee are open to the public

The Executive Officer, who is appointed by the Central Government, is paid from the Defence Services Estimates, and he is the Secretary of the Board, and of all the committees appointed by the Board The functions and powers of the President, Vice-President and the Executive Officer are clearly laid down in the Cantonments Act (Act-II) 1924 The staff strength as on 31-3-71 was as follows

(a) Ministerial	134
(b) Technical	5
(b) Class IV	296
Total	435

The Board attends to normal municipal activities, exclusive of those coming under the direct responsibility of the military authorities

The Cantonment has no underground drainage as yet The Board gets its water supply through the Military Engineering Services, Delhi Cantonment, under a bulk supply arrangement and is responsible for the supply of water to the public The wells in the villages are maintained by the Board As regards electricity the Military Engineering Service supplies it directly to consumers the expenditure on street lighting being met by the Cantonment Board In 1970-71, it maintained seven primary schools, and giving aid to two privately managed schools It also maintains a hospital with 30 beds, a public Garden (Sri Nagesh Garden), the Church Road Bazar Rotary, and a public reading room and library

As regards the finances of the Board, the receipt and expenditure of the Board during the years 1970-71 were, exclusive of opening and closing balances, Rs 28,04,942 and Rs 29,58,914 respectively The Board was able to meet its liablities from its normal sources without seeking any ordinary grant-in-aid from the Government.[1]

The Panchayats

In Delhi the necessary legislation regarding Panchayats was undertaken in 1955—the Panchayat Raj Act, 1954, No III of 1955 The Act is largely based on the Panchayat Raj laws of Uttar Pradesh The Delhi Land Reforms Act, No VIII of 1954, is closely connected with this enactment The Delhi Panchayat Raj Act came into force on 12 May, 1956, the Panchayats so far functioning under the Punjab Panchayats Act of 1939 being abolished Difficulties that were not anticipated arose as a result of certain lacunas in the provisions of the law, and the new Panchayats could not be set up immediately The Delhi Land Refroms Act of 1954 was amended by Central Act IV of 1959, and the "Delhi Panchayat Raj Act, 1954", by Central Act IX of 1959 Following these remedial laws, elections to the Panchayats were held in October, 1959, and Panchayats commenced functioning on 1st March, 1960

Constitution And Powers Of The Panchayats

Gaon Panchayats.—The Panchayat system in force in Delhi comprises of two sets of institutions firstly, there are the Gaon Sabhas and Gaon Panchayats which administer the local affairs of the village communities, and secondly the Circle Panchayats, which are primarily constituted to assist in the dispensation of justice in a cheap way and without much of legal formalism

The Goan Sabha is constituted on the basis of adult suffrage i e, of persons who have completed 21 years of age All persons registered as voters in the electoral rolls of the area of the Sabha in accordance with the provisions of the Constitution and of the Representation of the People Act, 1950 are its members[2] The Sabha elects the members of the Gaon Panchayat and also the Pradhan, who heads the Panchayat and presides over the deliberations of both the Panchayat and the Sabha Election is on the

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[1] *Annual Administration Report for* 1970-71 *Delhi Cantonment*

[2] *The Delhi Panchayat Raj Act*, 1954, *as amended*, SS 2(1) *and* 4

basis of joint electorates, and voters have as many votes as there are candiadtes to be returned Voting can be either by open show of hands or by ballot under the Rules.[1]

The Gaon Panchayat consists of the Pradhan and a certain number of Panchs[2] and the number or Panchs depends upon the population of the Gaon Sabha area

While the Pradhan is elected by the Gaon Sabha, the *Up*-Pradhan is elected by the Gaon Panchayat from among its own members[3] The term of office of the Pradhan, the *Up*-Pradhan and the Panchs is three years, and the period may be extended up to maximum of two more years by the Chief Commissioner[4] The Gaon Sabha may, at a meeting specially convened for the purpose remove the Pradhan or the *Up*-Pradhan by a majority of two-thirds of the members present and voting[5] They can also be removed by the Government for misconduct and other reasons[6]

The Gaon Panchayat has a wide range of duties, obligatory as well as discretionary The former include assistance for the development of agriculture, commerce and industry in particular, framing programme of production, reclamation of waste lands, establishent and care of common grazing grounds, allotment of places for storing manure, and regulation of *melas* markets and *hats* It is also the duty of the Panchayats to maintain registers of births, deaths and marriages, and such records relating to cattle census population census and other statistics as may be prescribed[7] Under the Delhi Panchayat Raj Act as originally enacted, the Gaon Panchayat was required to construct and maintain public wells tanks and ponds and regulate sources of water supply for drinking purposes It was to look after village sanitation and attend to medical relief and maternity and child welfare It was responsible for primary education, both of boys and girls and it was to construct and maintain public streets and attend to their lighting It was also to regulate the construction of new build-

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[1] *The Delhi Panchayat Raj Rules*, 1959, 30-46

[2] *The Delhi Land Reforms Act*, 1954, S 151

[3] *Ibid*, S 152

[4] *The Delhi Panchayat Raj Rules*, 1959, Rule 6

[5] *The Delhi Panchayat Raj Act*, 1954, *as amended*, S 15

[6] *Ibid*, S 49

[7] *Ibid* S 49

ings, or the extension or alteration of any existing buildings. These subjects were taken away from the Gaon Panchayat by the Delhi Municipal Corporation Act of 1957, and their administration is now vested in the Corporation.

In addition to the obligatory duties referred to above, the Gaon Panchayat is empowered to take up, at its discretion, certain other functions It may lay down minimum standards of cultivation with a view to increasing production, and also make arrangements for the co-operative management of land and of other resources of the villages It may regulate the use of manures and fertilisers It may develop co-operation, establish improved seed and implement stores, encourage production and use of improved seeds, take steps to improve breed of cattle, and provide for medical treatment of cattle and prevention of diseases among them It may raise a volunteer force for watch and ward, and set up organisations to promote goodwill and social harmony among the different communities It may act as a channel through which Government assistance reaches villages and especially help in obtaining and distributing Government loans among agriculturists It may enter into contact with the Government to collect any taxes or dues payable to the State, or with any or all the proprietors of land for the collection of rent on their behalf It may regulate extension of *abadi* It may establish and maintain public radio sets and gramophones libraries and reading rooms, and *akharas*, clubs and other place of recreation and games It may provide relief against famine or other calamity It has finally a general power to undertake any other measure of public utility calculated to promote the moral and material well-being or convenience of the villagers [1]

As regards the financial resources of the Gaon Panchayat it is empowered to levy, with the previous sanction of the Chief Commissioner, a tax on the rent payable by an *asami* under the Delhi Land Reforms Act, 1954, not exceeding three paise in the rupee of such rent, and a tax on land revenue not exceeding six paise in the rupee [2] Further, the Municipal Corporation of Delhi is required to pay the Gaon Sabhas the proceeds of the tax on profession, trades, callings and employments, as and when that tax is levied in the Gaon Sabha areas, and also the proceeds of the property taxes on lands and buildings in those areas as

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[1] *The Delhi Panchayat Raj Act*, 1954, *as amended* SS 18-19 & 27

[2] *Ibid*, S 39 (1)

may be determined from time to time by the Corporation Before effecting payment, the cost of collection is deducted[1] With the permission of the Chief Commissioner, the Gaon Panchayat may take loan from the Government to finance its projects[2] There is provision under the Panchayat Raj Act for voluntary contribution of physical labour by the members of the Gaon Sabhas,[3] and the rules made under the Act permit receipt of contributions from the Delhi Municipal Corporation and the general public for establishing and maintaining a village volunteer force, libraries and reading rooms[4] Grants for other purposes can also be received, it appears, from the Government, the Corporation or the public[5]

The Gaon Sabha may be said to constitute the village Parliament, and the Gaon Panchayat its cabinet or working committee The former is to meet normally twice a year, once soon after harvesting the *kharif* crop and next soon after harvesting the *rabi* crop[6] The Gaon Panchayat has to place before the Sabha at its *kharif* meeting, budget estimates of income and expenditure for the coming year beginning with the 1st of April, and a statement of accounts for the preceding year at the *rabi* meeting The budget takes effect after it has been passed by the Sabha and approved by the authority prescribed by the Government, namely, the Deputy Director of Panchayats A Gaon Panchayat cannot incur expenditure in excess of the budgetary provision without the approval of the latter[7] The Pradhan also has to present biennial reports of business at the *kharif* and the *rabi* meetings of the Sabha[8]

The Gaon Panchayat is charged with the detailed execution of the projects and policies endoresed by the Gaon Sabha It is required by law to meet at least once a month The Pradhan, or in his absence the *Up*- Pradhan, presides over its meetings Questions may be asked and resolutions adopted in respect of all matters pertaining to the affairs of the Sabha Committees of the Panchayat may be constituted with power to co-opt one outsider[9]

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1 *Delhi Municipal Corporation Act*, 1957, S 507

2 *Delhi Panchayat Raj Act*, 1954, *as amended*, S 37

3 *Ibid* SS 78

4 *The Delhi Panchayat Raj Rules*, 1959, *Rule* 254

5 *The Delhi Panchayat Raj Act*, 1954, S 33 (2 f & j)

6 *Ibid* S 11

7 *Ibid* , S 47 *The Delhi Panchayat Raj Rules*, 1959, *Rule* 244 (b)

8 *The Delhi Panchayat Raj Act*, 1954, *as amended*, S 12

9 *The Delhi Panchayat Raj Rules*, 1959, 76-82 *and* 90

As regards the administrative staff of the Gaon Panchayat, Secretary is appointed by the Deputy Commissioner and the same person may hold the post in respect of more than one Panchayat. His position is comparable to that of the Commissioner of Municipal bodies appointed by the Government As regards the rest of the staff, the Gaon Panchayat is required to draw up a list of officers, prescribe their duties and decide the salaries and allowances to be allowed to them, and obtain the approval of the Director of Panchayats for the same After this is done, the Panchayat is free to appoint the staff and exercise necessary control [1]

Circle Panchayats.—The Circle Panchayats are elected by the Gaon Sabha constituting the unit, in the same manner as the members of the Gaon Panchayats are elected The Gaon Sabha areas with a population of 1,000 or less return two persons, and those with more than 1 000 return three persons [2] Each of the Circle Panchayats elects from among its own members a Sarpanch and a Naib Sarpanch [3] They can be removed by the Government for misconduct or other reasons [4] The term of office of the panchs of the Circle Panchayats is the same as that of the members of the Gaon Panchayats [5] As regards the administration of justice, the members of the Circle Panchayat constitute the panel from which a Panchayat Adalat or a bench of judges composed of five persons, is formed to hear civil and criminal suits The Sarpanch appoints the benches, and each bench is to have one Panch residing in the area of the Gaon Sabha in which the plaintiff or the complainant resides and one from the area of the Gaon Sabha in which the defendant or the opposite party resides and the remaining Panchs from other areas [6] Where the parties are residents of different circles, the Panchayat Inspector is empowered to constitute a special bench composed of Panchs from both the circles [7] The Civil jurisdiction of the Circle Panchayat extends over suits of the following description if the value does not exceed Rs 200 (a) a suit for money due on contract, other than a contract in

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[1] *The Delhi Panchayat Raj Rules*, 1959 *Rules* 190–4

[2] *The Delhi Panchayat Raj Act*, 1954, *as amended*, S 44 (3) *and the Delhi Panchayat Raj, Rule* 1959

[3] *The Delhi Panchayat Raj Act*, 1954, *as amended*, S 44 (5)

[4] *Ibid*., S 49

[5] *Ibid*., S 6

[6] *Delhi Panchayat Raj Rules*, 1959, *Rule* 127 (2)

[7] *Ibid* ,128.

respect of immovable property, (b) a suit for the recovery of moveable property or for the value thereof, (c) a suit for compensation for wrongfully taking or injuring a moveable property, and (d) a suit for damages caused by cattle trespass The Chief Commissioner is empowered to raise the pecuniary limit to Rs 500 in respect of any particular Circle Panchayat Parties can, by written agreement, prefer their suit before the Circle Panchayat even in cases of higher value, provided the value does not exceed the pecuniary limits of the appellate jurisdiction of the Senior Sub-Judge, which is at present Rs 1000 Certain classes of cases are excluded from the jurisdiction of the Circle Panchayat, (a) a suit for a balance of partnership account, unless a balance has been struck by the parties or their agents, (b) a share under an intestacy or a legacy under a will, (c) acts of Government or of public servants in their official capacity, (d) a suit against a minor or a person of unsound mind, and (e) a suit cognizable by a revenue court under the Delhi Land Reforms Act, 1954, except as provided in the Delhi Panchayat Raj Act[1] As regards revenue cases the Tahsildar is directed to transfer certain types of cases, provided the land revenue assessed on the land in question does not exceed Rs 100[2] The Circle Panchayat is empowered to try a number of offences under the Indian Penal Code, the Cattle Trespass Act 1871, and the Delhi Public Gambling Act, 1955 The offences include theft, receiving of stolen property worth less than Rs 50, misappropriation of property, assault, intimidation, trespass, public nuisance, mischief through injury to animals, irrigation works, public roads, etc, negligent conduct with respect to fire and combustible or explosive substances, and disobedience to certain specific orders of public authorities The Panchayat is not permitted to try public servants and persons with previous convictions The Chief Commissioner may curtail the criminal jurisdiction of the Panchayat or extend it to cover other offences under the above enactments which are to be punishable with fine only up to a limit of Rs 100/-[3] A Panchayat Adalat cannot inflict a substantive sentence of imprisonment or imprisonment in default of payment of fine it can only impose a fine not exceeding Rs 100[4] If at any time a Panchayat Adalat feels that it has no jurisdiction to try a case or offence involved is one for which it cannot award adequate punishment, or the nature of the case is such that it should be tried by a regular court of law, it may move for the

[1] *The Delhi Panchayat Raj Act*, 1954, *as amended*, SS.55-7

[2] *Ibid* S 54

[3] *Ibid* , S 53 A *and* 53 C

[4] *Ibid* , S 53 B

transfer of the case to a court of competent jurisdiction, advising the parties accordingly [1] There is no right of appeal from the decision of a Panchayat Adalat, but there is provision for revision by the Senior Judge, Additonal Magistrate or Collector, in respect of civil, criminal or revenue proceedings respectively The latter may review the case either on their own motion or on the application of any party, and may pass such orders as they think fit [2]

At least three members of the Panchayat Adalat, including the Chairman, should be present at the trial of a suit, criminal case of proceeding, and no trial will be deemed invalid if the same Panchs are not present at all the hearings [3] The opinion of the majority constitutes the decision of the Adalat [4] The language of the Adalat and of all its records is Hindi or Urdu [5] The Code of Civil Procedure, 1908, the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1896, the Indian Evidence Act, 1872, and the Indian Limitation Act, 1908, do not extend to the proceedings of these Adalats,[6] and hence the procedure adopted by them is quite simple No legal practitioner is allowed to appear, except to advise and defend a person who is arrested [7] A low rate of fee is prescribed, both in respect of civil suits and criminal complaints [8] Every case is required to be disposed of within six weeks of its institution [9]

The Chief Commissioner is empowered, at his discretion, to "utilise the services of the Circle Panchayats as a representative elected body of the constituent Gaon Sabha for the purposes of co-ordinating their common schemes of development projects and their general superintendence "[10] When he decides to do so, the Circle Panchayat would have the following obligatory functions (a) development projects beneficial to all the villages or more than one village in the circle, such as roads seed stores or irrigation projects; (b) administration of superseded Gaon Sabhas,

[1] *Ibid* , S 75 A

[2] *Ibid* , SS 61 & 76

[3] *Ibid* , S 51

[4] *Ibid*, S 73

[5] *The Delhi Panchayat Raj Rules*, 1959, *Rule* 148

[6] *The Delhi Panchayat Raj Act*, 1954, *as amended*, S 72 (1)

[7] *Ibid* , SS 69-70

[8] *The Delhi Panchavat Raj Rules*, 1959, *Rules* 150-6

[9] *Ibid* , Rule 132

[10] *The Delhi Panchayat Raj Act*, 1954, *as amended*, S 45

and (c) any other business in which more than one Gaon Sabha is interested The Chief Commissioner may, at his discretion confer on the Circle Panchayat the general superintendence and control of the constituent Gaon Sabhas and Goan Panchayats [1]

The expenses of the Panchayat Adalats in a circle are met in equal proportion by the constituent Gaon Sabhas, and receipts, by way of fines and fees are credited in equal proportion to the latter [2] As regards the non-judicial undertakings of the Circle Panchayats, the Chief Commissioner is empowered to make rules for meeting out of the Gaon Sabha Funds such expenditure as may be incurred [3]

Supervision And Control Of The Gaon And Circle Panchayats

The General supervision and control of the Gaon Sabhas and the Gaon and Circle Panchayats is vested in the Administrator He has authority to curtail the powers of any of these bodies or supersede them if he is not satisfied with their working He has also the power to issue specific directions to secure proper performance of duties imposed upon them by law [4]

The Panchayats At Work

In 1955, President Rajendra Prasad observed "Our pledge to establish a welfare State in India and to uphold the best democratic institution would be meaningless unless the people in the countryside are properly trained in the democratic ways and the village community once again integrated so that the initiative to improve their lot lies with them" [5] The Delhi Panchayat Raj Act, 1954, and the rules made thereunder no doubt provided a good framework for development on right lines The progress made since the new Panchayats system came into force on 1st March, 1960, is of great interest

[1] *Ibid*

[2] *Ibid*, S 41

[3] *Ibid*, S 45 B (2)

[4] *Ibid*, SS 84-8

[5] *H D Malviya, Village Panchayats in India* (1956), p 288

Separate Gaon Sabhas are set up for every village with a population of 500 or more; smaller villages are grouped together and have a common Gaon Sabha There are in all 205 Gaon Sabha areas, each of them covering one to five villages During 1970-71, there were 195 Gaon Panchayats functioning, the remaining being under supersession for unsatisfactory working The number of members in the different Panchayats varied from four to ten the total number of members in all the Panchayats being 1,346, giving an average of 6 5

While in law Gaon Sabhas and Panchayats seem to have been provided with adequate revenue resources, their position in practice does not appear to be satisfactory They have so far been authorised to collect land revenues on behalf of the State or permitted to levy any tax Their funds consist mainly of receipts from leases of land, stone quarries and sale of trees etc They also get loans and grants from Government but these are earmarked for specific purposes viz development work etc

With its limited resources, the Panchayats have been engaged in various activities of value-improvement of water supply by construction of wells and ponds, construction and repair of village streets provision of television sets, etc During 1971-72 the village Panchayats earned Rs 3,52,166 97 and spent an amount of Rs 2,61,149 63 on development works

The number of Circle Panchayats functioning in 1970-71 was 23 The work of these Panchayats has been entirely judicial, and it does not appear that their services have been untilised for co-ordination and development of social welfare activities of two or more Gaon Sabha areas, for which provision is made under S 45 of the Delhi Panchayat Raj Act 1954, as amended

During 1971-72, 101 suits was fixed before the circle Panchayats, out of which 48 were decided by order & 23 was settled by compromise

The supervision and control of the Panchayats is vested in the Delhi Administration. The Asstt Development Commissioner (Panchayats) is the *ex-officio* Director of Panchayats. The Block Development Officers in respect of Community Development are *ex-officio* Deputy Directors within their respective jurisdictions.

APPENDIX I

Population of the Local Bodies

	1921	1931	1941	1951
Delhi M C* . . .	2,48,259	3,47,539	5,21,849	9,14,790
New Delhi M C* . .	31,456	61,855	93,733	2,76,314
Civil Lines N A C** . .	17,306	16,347	19,395	83,273
West Delhi M C* . .	—	—	—	58 862
Delhi Cantonment Board .	6,272	8,798	23,140	40,950
Shahdara M C* . . .	—	8,262	15,955	30,802
Red Fort N A C . . .	1,127	1,641	1,740	10,022
Narela N A C . . .	..	—	8,050	9,597
Mehrauli N.A.C . .	..	—	6,050	7,436
Najafgarh N A C . .	..	..	5,774	5,088

*Municipal Committee.

*Notified Area Committee.

APPENDIX II

Growth in Income & Expenditure of Municipal and Notified Area Committees & the Delhi Cantonment Board in the Delhi

	1916		1927-28	
	Income	Expenditure	Income	Expenditure
Delhi M C.	13,61,815	14,92,215	26,02,020	26,36,596
New Delhi M C.	.	..	1,63,644	1,08,744
Shahdara M C.	4,299	4,498	9,589	12,738
Civil lines N A.C.	4,80,146	3,04,525	4,43,908	5,02,086
Narela N.A C	..	..	2,295	3,411
Najafgarh N A.C.	1,526	1,634	1,659	2,422
Mehrauli N.A.C.	1,685	2,963	2,788	4,912
W Delhi M.C.	..	–	–	..
Delhi Fort N A.C.		..	13,242	9,717
S. Delhi M C.	..	..		.
Delhi Cantt. Board		.		

Note —The Table is based on the Delhi Admn reports of the relevant years Figures for 1955-56 are based, no P 283(1)/BES/50)Local Bodies Statistics. The opening and closing balances are excluded from the figures

APPENDIX II—*Contd*

	1937-38		1947-48		1955-56	
	Income	Expenditure	Income	Expenditure	Income	Expenditure
Delhi M C	44,52,256	46,09,294	87,37,155	86,09,182	3,43,19,541	3,39,57,880
New Delhi M C	36,85,000	35,09,000	85,13,302	1,00,82,243	2,59,22,258	2,66,64,933
Shahdara M C	40,615	34,193	2,01,655	1,86,033	11,45,082	11,90,753
Civil lines N A C	8,60,954	3,41,400	7,97,871	8,18,129	17,92,794	15,67,436
Narela N A C	1,927	1,617	11,460	9,230	70,010	76,137
Najafgarh N A C	3,075	3,564	5,851	8,830	25,924	15,882
Mehrauli N A C	3,900	3,618	1,42,608	1,37,887	1,49,516	1,23,345
W. Delhi M C			9,974	14,725	3,74,776	2,78,105
Delhi fort N A C	15,494	16,864	65,373	51,125	1,61,621	1,33,579
S Delhi M C					4,21,235	
Delhi Cantt Board					4,21,267	4,86,304

APPENDIX III (A)

Income of Municipal and Notified Area Committees and the Delhi Cantonment Board in Delhi for 1955-56 (based on F. 288(1)/BES/60-local bodies Statistics)

Name of Municipalities	INCOME				
	Municipal Rates & Taxes	Realiisaon under Special Acts	Other sources of revenue	Exardiary and debt	Total
Delhi M C	1,75,23,509	5,33,669	41,75,822	1,20,86,541	3,43,19,541
New Delhi M C	1,72,70,293	91,595	19,88,784	65,71 586	2,59,22,258
Shahdara M C	6,04,898	2,997	1,46,330	3,90,557	11,45,082
Civil lines N A C	12,58,990	30,653	3,23,578	1,79,573	17,92,794
Narela N A C	56,797		12,784	429	70,010
Najafga h N A C	9,360	1,173	,391	11 000	25,924
Mehrauli N A C	57,505	356	88,493	3,162	1,49,516
W Delhi M C	3,090		3,51 284	20,402	3,74,776
Delhi Fort N A C	16,915	125	79,440	65,141	1,61,621
S, Delhi M C	1,20,127	8,,720	2,62,382	30,006	4,21,235
Delhi Cantt Board	89,155	7,355	3,02,893	21,864	4,21,267

APPENDIX III (B)

Expenditure of Municipal and Notified Area Committees and the Delhi Cantonment Board in Delhi for 1955-56 (based on F 288 (1)/BES 60-local bodies statistics)

Name of Municipalities	EXPENDITURE						
	General adminis-tration & collection charges	Public safety	Public health and sanitation	Public works	Public institutions & misc exp-enditure	Extra-ordinary and debt	Total
Delhi M C	28,21,442	7,23,965	1,33,81,789	42,54,485	48,49,206	79,26,993	3,39,57,880
New Delhi M.C . .		57,18,286	41,33,662	8,79,596	1,07,68,386	51,65,003	2,66,64,933
Shahdara M C .	2,34,264	90,861	4,40,558	80,814	1,90,248	1,54,008	11,90,753
Civillines N A C . .	..	73,807	7,57,937	4,20,330	1,53,135	1,62,227	15,67,436
Narela N A C . .	30,379	6,905	20,207	16,967	500	1,179	76,137
Najafgarh N A.C . .	5,366	2,053	6,411	1,852	.	.	15,882
Mehrauli N A C . .	23,318	2,853	17,688		75,597	3,889	1,23,345
W Delhi M C . .	45,383	4	2,17,161	7,155	1,943	6,459	2,78,105
Delhi Fort N A C . .	16,767		55,303	9,470	11,743	40,296	1,33,579
S Delhi M C . .	..	.	..				
Delhi Can't Board	40,560	14,425	2,50,078	50,875	85,762	44,604	4,86,304

APPENDIX IV

List of zones of Delhi Municipal Corporation in 1970-71

Zone No	Name of Zone	Name of Ward
1	2	3
1	Shahdara	Gita Colony, Krishan Nagar, Gandhi Nagar, Raghabarpura, Shahdara East Shahdara West
2	Civil Lines Subzimandi . .	Model Town, Vijay Nagar, Jawahar Nagar, Timarpur, Civil Lines, Mori Gate, Kashmire Gate, Arya Pura, Sohan Ganj, Rohat Ganj, Shakti Nagar
3	City zone	Minto Road, Purana Qila, Shardhanand Bazar, Chandni Chowk Darya Ganj, Chatta Lal Mian, Dariba, Maliwara, Matia Mahal, Suiwalan, Lal darwaza, Charkhewalan, Ballimaran, Naya Bans, Farash Khana, Ajmeri Gate, Kucha Pati Ram, Kalan Masjid

APPENDIX IV—*Contd.*

1	2	3
4	Sadar Paharganj Zone	Paharganj, Mantola, Darilaa Pan, Ram Nagar, Kadam Sharriff, Basti Julahan, Qasabpura, Pahari Dhiraj, Deputy Ganj, Teliwara, Pul Bangash, Partap Nagar, Motia Khan
5	Karol Bagh	Rajinder Nagar, Naraina, Tri Nagar, Karampura, Sarai Rohilla, Kishan Ganj, Manak pura, Khajui Road, Tibbia College, Western Extn Rehgarpura, Sat nagar, Dev Nagar, Bapa Nagar, East Patel Nagar, West Patel Nagar, Shadipur, Anand Parbat

APPENDIX IV—*Contd*

1	2	3
6.	West Delhi	Nangal Raya, Ashok Nagar, Tilak Nagar, Rajouri Garden, Ramesh Nagar, Moti Nagar, Shakurbasti
7	New Delhi South Zone .	Nizam-ud-din , Jangpura, Sewa Nagar, Kotla Mubarakpur, Lajpat Nagar, Vinobha Puri, Okhla, Kalkaji, Malviya Nagar, R K Puram
8	Rural Areas .	Badli Alipur, Narela, Bawana, Kanjhawal, Nangloi, Najafgarh, Isapur, Palam, Mehapal pur, Wazirabad, Madipur, Mehrauli Tughluqabad, Ghonda, Kureji Khas

Source . *M.C D Year Book* 1969–70

APPENDIX V

A—Delhi Municipal Corporation : summary statement of income (actuals for 1968–69)

S No	Head of Accounts	Amount in Rs.
1	General Tax, Indirect Taxation and Misc revenue	16,08,29,023
2	Water Supply	.
3	Education	2,00,82,571
4	Libraries	..
5	Public Health	6,37,783
6	Medical Relief . .	2,06,664
7	Conservancy, Street Cleansing	6,35,283
8	Scavenging, Drains and Sewers .	876
9	Roads and Public Lighting . . .	25,87,890
10	Buildings, Land, Acquisition and Management	38,08,146
11	Fire Brigade	8,288
12	Licencing, Removal of Encroachments etc .	29,11,893
13	Gardens and Open Spaces	1,88,453
14	Markets and Slaughter Houses	15,26,545
15	Improvement schemes, Slum Clearance .	19,21,260
16	Transfer from other Accounts (Elect Accounts)	.
17	Development Charges . .	
	TOTAL	19,53,44,675
	Opening balance on 1st April (—)	—1,41,55,264
	Grand Total .	18,11,89,411

Source : M C D Budget Estimate for 1970-71 & *Budget Estimate for* 1969-70—*Pages* 18 & 19.

B—Delhi Municipal Corporation : summary statement of expenditure (actuals for 1968–69)

S. No.	Head of Accounts	Amount in Rs
1	General Supervision Collection of Revenue etc .	90,49,844
2	Water supply	70,53,628
3	Education	5,64,07,499
4	Libraries	1,12,522
5	Public Health	61,06,075
6	Medical Relief	1,82,65,511
7	Conservancy, Street Cleansing	2,01,33,238
8	Scavenging, Drains and Sewers	9,32,517
9	Roads and Public Lighting .	1,87,53,895
10	Building, Land Acquisition and Management . .	49,50,580
11	Fire Brigade	25,71,470
12	Licensing, Removal of Encroachments etc . .	6,18,918
13	Garden and Open Spaces . . .	44,97,230
14	Markets and Slaughter Houses .	2,82,799
15	Improvement schemes, Slum Clearance and removal of Jhuggi-Jhonpri schemes	22,84,831
16	Miscellaneous	3,30,76,167
17	Reserve for unforseen charges . . .	1,61,049
18	Development Charges . . .	.
	Plan Balance transferred to Revenue Account	6,78,647
	Total expenditure . .	18,29,36,420
	Net expenditure	18,29,36,420
	Closing balance on 31st March (—) .	—17,47,009
	Grand Total .	18,11,89,411

Source Budget Estimate for 1970-71 *& Budget estimate for* 1968–69 *Municipal Corporation Delhi*—Page—20, 21

APPENDIX VI

Sources of income of the Delhi Municipal Corporation and receipts during 1968–69

(in lakhs of rupees)

S No.	Source of Income	Accounts 1968-69
1	2	3
1	(a) *Grants from Government*	
	(i) Transferred institutions . .	97 00
	(ii) For education	199 40
	(iii) For Civic receptions .	0 18
	(iv) For meeting establishment and contingent charges of Slum Clearance & J J Schemes .	
	(v) Reimbursement of pension & gratuity of transferred Employees	1 03
	TOTAL (a)	297 61
2	(b) *Govt. grants for specific purposes* .	
	(i) For Vital statistcs and for plague and other epidemic diseases . . .	0 18
	(ii) Community services . .	0 86
	(iii) Ad-hoc grant for sanitation drive, during 1968-69	0 08
	(iv) Flood control measures .	2 70
	TOTAL (b)	3 82
	(c) *Share of Assigned central taxes from Government*	
	(i) Terminal Tax . .	482 72
	(ii) Entertainment tax . .	124 80
	(iii) Tax on Motor vehicles	159 27
	(iv) Reimbursement of expenditure on collection of Terminal Tax	36 40
	TOTAL (c) . .	803 19

APPENDIX VI—*Contd.*

1	2	3
4	(d) *Municipal taxes*	
	(i) General tax from urban and rural areas	437 26
	(ii) Duty on transfer of property	60 12
	(iii) Tax on consumption & sale on electricity	140 83
	(iv) Milch tax and dog tax	4 46
	(v) Tax on vehicles and animals	2 62
	(vi) Tax on bldg. applications	7 18
	(vii) Fire tax	14 00
	(viii) Theatre tax . .	4 92
	(ix) Tax on advertisements .	10 05
	TOTAL (d)	681 44
5	(e) *Rents, Fees and Fines*	
	(i) Fines for offences against law .	11 83
	(ii) Process fees .	4 95
	(iii) Education fees	1 14
	(iv) Fines from cattle pounds	1 97
	(v) Fees from hospitals	0 22
	(vi) Fees from vehicles licences	0 36
	(vii) Tehbazari fees	16 81
	(viii) Rent of lands and bldgs	7 98
	(ix) Fees for *Chabutras* Projections etc .	12 87
	(x) Fines for offences concerning bldgs	12 63
	(xi) Licence fees for offencsive trades	24 13
	(xii) Licence fees for articles of food and drinks	4 38
	(xiii) Licence for hawking	0 14
	(xiv) Rent of markets and slaughter fees .	7 71
	(xv) Rent of qrs provided to slum evictees . .	18 43
	(xvi) Receipts from encroachments .	0 03
	(xvii) Employees State insurance office	0 76
	TOTAL (e) . .	126 34
6	Interest on investments .	0 02
7	Reimbursement of debt charges regarding re-development scheme	
8	Other miscellaneous revenue	33 47
9	Commercial ventures . .	7 55
10	Development charges . .	
	TOTAL	41 04
	GRAND TOTAL . .	1,953,44

Source M C D.B E 1970–71, B E. 1969–70

APPENDIX VI

Sources of income of the Delhi Municipal Corporation and receipts during 1968–69

(in lakhs of rupees)

S.No	Source of Income	Accounts 1968-69
1	2	3
1	(a) *Grants from Government*	
	(i) Transferred institutions .	97 00
	(ii) For education	199 40
	(iii) For Civic receptions .	0 18
	(iv) For meeting establishment and contingent charges of Slum Clearance & J J Schemes .	
	(v) Reimbursement of pension & gratuity of transferred Employees	1 03
	TOTAL (a)	297 61
2	(b) *Govt grants for specific purposes* .	
	(i) For Vital statistics and for plague and other epidemic diseases . .	0 18
	(ii) Community services .	0 86
	(iii) Ad-hoc grant for sanitation drive, during 1968-69	0 08
	(iv) Flood control measures .	2 70
	TOTAL (b) .	3 82
	(c) *Share of Assigned central taxes from Government*	
	(i) Terminal Tax .	182 72
	(ii) Entertainment tax .	124 80
	(iii) Tax on Motor vehicles	159 27
	(iv) Reimbursement of expenditure on collection of Terminal Tax	36 40
	TOTAL (c) . . .	803 19

APPENDIX VI—*Contd*

1	2	3
4	(d) *Municipal taxes*	
	(i) General tax from urban and rural areas	437 26
	(ii) Duty on transfer of property	60 12
	(iii) Tax on consumption & sale on electricity	140 83
	(iv) Milch tax and dog tax	4 46
	(v) Tax on vehicles and animals	2 62
	(vi) Tax on bldg applications	7 18
	(vii) Fire tax	14 00
	(viii) Theatre tax	4 92
	(ix) Tax on advertisements	10 05
	TOTAL (d)	681 44
5	(e) *Rents, Fees and Fines*	
	(i) Fines for offences against law	11 83
	(ii) Process fees	4 95
	(iii) Education fees	1 14
	(iv) Fines from cattle pounds	1 97
	(v) Fees from hospitals	0 22
	(vi) Fees from vehicles licences	0 36
	(vii) Tehbazari fees	16 81
	(viii) Rent of lands and bldgs	7 98
	(ix) Fees for *Chabutras*, Projections etc	12 87
	(x) Fines for offences concerning bldgs	12 63
	(xi) Licence fees for offensive trades	24 13
	(xii) Licence fees for articles of food and drinks	4 38
	(xiii) Licence for hawking	0 14
	(xiv) Rent of markets and slaughter fees	7 71
	(xv) Rent of qrs provided to slum evictees	18 43
	(xvi) Receipts from encroachments	0 03
	(xvii) Employees State insurance office	0 76
	TOTAL (e)	126 34
6	Interest on investments	0 02
7	Reimbursement of debt charges regarding re-development scheme	
8	Other miscellaneous revenue	33 47
9	Commercial ventures	7 55
10	Development charges	.
	TOTAL	41 04
	GRAND TOTAL	1,953,44

Source M C D.B E. 1970–71, B E. 1969–70

APPENDIX VII

Naw Delhi Municipal Committee—Summary statement of income (actuals 1968-69)

(Figures in thousands of rupee)

Head of account	Actuals 1968-69
I. REVENUE ACCOUNT	
1. *House Tax*	
GOVERNMENT	
Current	2,03,064
Arrears	17,19,577
TOTAL	19,22,641
PRIVATE	
Current	57,74,373
Arrears	4,12,809
TOTAL	61,87,182
1 House tax	81,09,823
2 Assigned shares of taxes	11,29,47,269
3 Advertisement tax	1 80,008
4 Theatre & show tax	1,17,520
5 Duty on transfer of property	1,47,006
6 Building fee	3,58,055
7 Other taxes	59,629
8 Fines	1,22,133
9 Licence fee	1,26,150
10 Rents/Licence Fee	
1 Building	
Quarters	2,12,166
Shops & Stalls	9,10,976
Commercial Projects	8,52,911
TOTAL I Buildings	19,76,053

APPENDIX VII—*Contd.*

S No	Head of account	Actuals 1968-69
III	Others	5,70,696
	Total Rent/Licence fee	25,46,749
11.	Electric Supply	
	Sale of Energy	35,76,715
	Meter Rent etc	3,67,511
	TOTAL Electric supply	3,61,34,668
12.	Cattle pounds	74,002
13	Education fee	1,34,675
14.	Employees' health contribution	34,593
15	Water supply	
	Sale of water	
	Current	64,41,045
	Arrears	3,12,000
	Total Sale of water	67,53,045
	Meter rent etc	3,01,671
	Total Water supply	70,54,716
16	Veterinary Hospital	25,251
17	Other receipts	40,81,314
18	Delhi Admn Grant	17,96,900
19	Govt of India Grants	23,700
20.	Contribution from public	30,000
	Total I Revenue Account	7,41,04,170

B New Delhi Municipal Committee—summary statement of expenditure (actuals 1968-69)

S No	Head of account	Actuals 1968-69
1	General	27,52,320
2	Arboriculture	11,92,796
3	Swimming pool	12,498
4	Ground rent	1,88,071
5	Misc Police force	
6	Electric supply	2,92,01,857
7	Maintenance of road lighting	11,17,627
8	Cattle Pounds	57,470
9	Destruction of Dogs	18,460
10	Public Hydrants	1,27,281
11	Education	52,22,983
12	Medical	7,07,645
13	Public Health	56,71,512
14	Sewage Disposal	9,00,000
15	Water Supply	33,26,108
16	Veterinary Hospital	54,491
17	Engineering Department	14,19,028
18	Municipal Electrical Works Division	.
19	Architectural Department	1,08,095
20	Maintenance of Roads	34,08,441
21	Repairs & Maintenance of Buildings	6,78,534
22	Civil Defence	2,566
	Total I Revenue Account	5,61,67,883

APPENDIX VIII

Delhi Development Authority

BUDGET ESTIMATES

(excluding suspense heads etc)

(Figures in thousands of rupees)

	Receipts	Expenditure
1961-62	3,17,90	2,98,93
1962-63	3,65,94	3,11,89
1963-64	1,45,37	4,04,32
1964-65	6,06,59	6,06,55
1965-66	4,96,18	5,02,58
1966-67	4,16,98	4,16,49
1967-68	4,30,53	4,09,21
1968-69	5,23,75	6,64,08
1969-70	11,33,38	15,72,26
1970-71	15,02,30	19,23,34

APPENDIX IX

(Figures in thousands of rupees)

	1969	1970-71
Expenditure on establishment (excluding share cost of administration charged to development schemes and Master Plan) but including expenditure on J J Removal Scheme I S B T and Delhi Lottery .	9,077	15,810[a]

Scheme-wise statement of Income

	1961 62	1962-63	1963-64	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69	1969-70	1970-71
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Revenue from works and development schemes (including damages) .	1,961	1,996	4,137	2,225	2,585	2,237	2,992	2,379	3,894	26,30
2 Receipts from disposal of land	347	056	8,741	174,77	218,79	350,04	234,89	402,50	511,00	682,12
3 Receipts from disposal of houses under the hire purchase housing schemes						18,41	6,29	70,54	109,20	214,52

APPENDIX IX—*Contd*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
4 Amount received for Implementation of J J Removal Scheme . .				5,37	..	.	31,50	60,00	90,00	80,00
5 Interest . .	2,39	2,09	3,15		12,60	30,67	28,62	76 25	23,41	49,87
6 Receipts from sale of lottery tickets . .									63,89	99,25
7 Other receipts . .	4,44	1,08	68,50	4,72	8,37	726	861	2,862	2,907	5,385
TOTAL	29,91	23,69	200,73	207,11	265,61	428,75	339,83	611,70	865,51	1,203,21

(a) Increase of Rs 6,763 lakhs in expenditure (Rs 158 40-90 77) was due mainly to (i) payment of conservancy charges in the various J J Colonies (Rs 30 87lakhs) (ii) opening of new division for the execution of housing schemes (Rs 12 81 lakhs), (iii) strengthening of Land Sales and other branches (Rs. 9 01 lakhs) and (v) Lottery Department (Rs 7 87 lakhs) due to increase in their activities.

APPENDIX X

	Expenditure									
	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69	1969-70	1970-71
1 Cost of Admn (excluding share cost of Admn charged to dev schemes and master plan but including exp on J J removal scheme, I S B T and Delhi lottery)	10,77	13,72	17,25	20,85	19,91	20,40	26,63	5,641	90,77	158,40
2 Expd on works and dev schemes (including J J)	1 06	3,08	1,05	134,96	17,04	9,94	12,70	229,91	141,29	194,84
3 Expd on development of land etc financed from revolving fund . . .	29,06	131 77	136,76	--	161,22	208,90	102,15	230 90	370,55	358,21
3A Payment to Housing Commissioner for acquisition of land	168,59	112,00		..	--	--	--			
4 Construction of houses under hire purchase housing schemes .			6,69	12,61	6,43	30,72	84,53	212,43	167,59	397,75
5 Payment of interest	2,49	15,47	14,86	14,60	14,31	14,07	13,78	19,50	27,70	50,22
6 Other expenditure .	1,90	2,18	1,11	1,19	3,20	4 33	63 3	6,64	10,44	7,50
7 Payment of lottery prizes			.	.	..		..		18,50	55,83
8 Improvement facilities and provision of medical aid to J J colonies etc .					.			..		17,73
TOTAL	213,87	278,22	178,02	184 51	221,14	288,36	336,45	755,82	826,84	124,048

CHAPTER XV

EDUCATION AND CULTURE

Historical Background

The tradition of learning and education was firmly established in Delhi when the Sultanate made Delhi its head-quarters from 1206-1526, though Chand Bardai's famous epic, *Chand Raso* showed that earlier such a cultivated state of learning and patronage of poets could not have been possible without a fairly advanced state of learning during the reign of Vigraharaja IV In the Medieval period, the curriculum set for students, though not uniform, was limited, and Muslim education comprised mainly of grammar which included etymology and syntax, literature, apostolic tradition, scholasticism (religious philosophy), and in Sanskrit studies, the emphasis was on Vedanta (philosophy), and Patanjali

Through their initiative, the Sultans built *Madarasas* for example, Il-tutmish was the first to establish a *Madarasa* at Delhi named *Madarassa-i-Muizzi* after Shihab-ud-din Muhammad Ghouri Sultana Raziya committed to the charge of Minhaj-i-Siraj. the author of the *Tabqat-i-Nasri*, the Nasrai College There was also the Muizzi College Amir Khusraur and his spiritual master, Nizam-ud-din Auliya contributed much to the cultural life of Delhi, and the tradition of singing of *qawwalis* which owed their popularity to Khusrau still continues at the Nizam-ud-din Auliya in Delhi Literary societies were formed and the most famous who initiated such societies was Khan-i-Shahid (Balban's son) and Sayyadi Molla Muhammad Tughluq founded a *Madarasa* in Delhi with a mosque attached to it, and the well-known poet Badr Chach composed a chronogram on this occasion Al Qal Qashandi, the author of *Subhu'l A'sha* says that there were 1,000 schools, *Madarasas* and *Maqtabs* in Delhi in the time of Tughluq, and out of these 1,000 *madarasas*, one belonged to the Shafaits and the rest were for the Hanafites It is difficult to accept these figures as the precise mode of collection, and scrutiny of data had not been devised Firuz Shah Tughluq built a college with mosques attached In his *Futuhat-i-Firuz Shahi*, the Sultan noted that the "*Madarasa* of Sultan Shams-ud-Din Ilbutmash had been destroyed I rebuilt it and furnished it with sandle wood doors" This *Madarasa* was situated within the well-planned garden and had suitable buildings for the residence of teachers and scholars,

and the foreign dignitaries never failed to visit it Maulana Jalal-ud-din Kirmani was the Principal of this institution Literary activities and the building of *Madarasas* and giving endowments continued throughout the period, and almost in every Sultan's rule there was a coterie of scholars and intellectuals, poets and musicians whose recognition by men of authority was a by-word

Mughal Period

During the Mughal period, it was Humayun who built a *Madarasa* in Delhi in which Sheikh Husain was the professor, and special provision was made there for teaching mathematics, astronomy and geography

For long a college on the roof of Humayun's tomb was used which was at one time an institution of some importance Maham Angea built a *Madarasa* in 1561 which stands in ruins, and which was built in front of the western gate of Purana Qila Shahjahan founded an Imperial College at Delhi in the vicinity of Jama Masjid, which fell into ruins long before 1857 Shahjahan's court was brilliant, and for its detailed account the reader may look somewhere else * Here it would suffice to point out that almost in every literary and artistic pursuit, individual could be found whose achievement was by no means small The family got a scholar in Dara Shikoh, Abu Talib Kalim was the poet laureate, and Hafiz Muhammad Khiyali was a great *'ulema* of his times Sukh Sen was master player on *rubat* (guitar) and Sur Sen on the *bin* (zither), Muhammad Nadir Samarqandi, Mir Hashim, Anup Chitra and Chitramani were the master painters Of historical works *Badshahnama* of Abdul Hamid Lahori and *Amal-i-Swaleh* may be mentioned Shahjahan opened the college Dar-ul-Baqa (abode of eternity) with Maulana Sadr-ud-din as its Director The *Madarasa* at Roshan-ud-daulah in Delhi owed its existence to private efforts and munificence Aurangzeb's theory of education is embodied in the reproach that he administered to his teacher Mullah Sale who concentrated on the rules of grammar but failed to impart to him liberal education Aurangzeb complained to his teacher that the kind of instruction imparted to him was destitute of natural philosophy, rationalism, geography, and was confined to linguistic studies which 'ruin the mind and fatigue the soul' Bernier noticed the want of founders of academies and real scholars

Centres of Learning

The famous centres of learning which once flourished presented now a melancholy picture due to the political vicissitudes through which Delhi passed The ancient endowments were in a

state of neglect; the opulent classes retreated in isolation, and there was a fundamental lack of encouragement to education; many old institutions languished for want of funds, the majority of children who attended schools either gratis or due to financial support from an affluent person found no patrons, and teachers were inadequately paid But despite the abnormal times, the accounts of British officials on education show that still quite a number of educational institutions managed to exist, though in the enumeration of these schools there appears obviously a wide divergence in different accounts The Report of 1827 gives for the Southern Division of Delhi 27 Muslim schools with 289 pupils, and 24 teachers and 70 Hindu schools with 886 pupils and 24 teachers. Another report dated 15th June 1827 which Charles Matcalfe received, gives details of 31 schools in the district of Delhi with 247 Hindu scholars and 116 Muslim scholars Again Matcalfe's statement of the number of native schools situated in Delhi and its vicinity (dated 15th June 1827) shows that there were 147 schools in Delhi, 40 of which were Hindu schools, and 103 Persian schools The monthly salary of a teacher varied between Rs 3 to Rs 9 I H Taylor's account of 8th January 1824 states that the number of public seminaries and colleges under the management of local agents was 17 and the number of scholars 81, whereas the number of private seminaries and colleges in Delhi was 17 and that of scholars 184 The account derived from the *Friend of India* (1818) shows that there were 30 Persian schools and 4-5 Arabic schools in the city of Delhi The Sanskrit schools numbered 20, and the Hindu schools were as many as 41 The number of scholars studying in these schools was unequal ranging between 5 to 50

The well-known public and private schools were the *Madarasa* attached to the Kashmire Masjid which was going to decay for want of funds, the *Madarasa* of Nawab Roshan-ud-Dowlah, the *Madarasa* of Nawab Iradutmund Khan, Ghees-ud-din, *Madarasa* Fatehpuri *Masjid Madarasa, Masjid Madarasa, Masjid Kotwal Chabutra* and *Masjid Mori* Gate *Madarasa*

Oriental Languages

In these schools the cultivation of Persian was extensive, and Hindus showed proficiency in it Sanskrit literature was encouraged in the city which indicated how its study was popular, though Arabic was not popular despite Lord Macaulay's rhetorical compliment to Delhi as the great city of Arabic learning The number of private schools in Delhi in the twenties of the nineteenth century was larger than public seminaries and colleges which had made

the cultivation of letters the chief occupation of their lives Only a limited number of teachers gave instructions on any stipulated remuneration of a pecuniary nature, and the aggregate number of those who resorted to the private schools was small for the population of the city. The pupils were seldom or never permanent residents and their attendance or application was guided by the mutual inclination or convenience of both parties, neither of which were placed under any system. The success and progress of the scholars depended largely on his own assiduity and the mode of education imparted was desultory and of capricious nature In the schools studies were confined to Persian and Arabic languages, theology, Muhammadan Law, and the *Quran* still remained the chief object of study

Mass Education

Charles Metcalfe's reports showed that the percentage of those attending schools was ten Metcalfe believed that the number of schools and institutions provided corresponded with the wants of the community and that there was not extraordinary deficiency among the people possessing the ordinary requirements of reading and writing He added that ample means of instruction existed in the usual branches of oriental education among the higher classes, and the only benefit of importance which the British should render would be the opening to them of the stores of European literature and sciences by providing the means of instruction in the English language A limited number of usually grown up persons resorted to a few institutions as interest or inclination led them But these few could be found only among the Muslim families Thus learning was gravely affected, and what little remained was due to the disinterested efforts of some individuals Maulana Shah Abdul Aziz was a distinguished scholar, and men from outside resorted to his school of philosophy to complete their researches Roshan-ud-deen Khan was the head of an academy of speculative philosophy

William Fraser, who was a poineer in the field of education in Delhi, instituted schools in Delhi between 1814-23 for about 80 boys at an expense to himself of about Rs 200/- per mensem In 1814, he began with the instruction of about 15 boys in reading and writing, in 1816, he established two schools of 20 boys each, and the third school he founded in 1820 and the fourth started functioning in 1823 His educational plans aimed at the education of the masses particularly the peasantry, and he suggested to the Government to take his schools and extend them so as to educate 400 boys at an estimated cost of Rs 8,400/- per mensem. But his

scheme was rejected on the ground that the limited means should be employed in giving education to the higher classes of the community.

Delhi College

Delhi College was started originally as a *Madarasa Ghazi-ud-din* in the Sarai and a mosque was attached to the tomb of Ghazi-ud-din Ferozjung in 1792 It received an endowment by a munificient bequest of Rs 1,70,000 from Nawab Itmad-ud-daulah, Prime Minister of the King of Oudh It was taken over by the British administration in 1825, and English, mathematics and other subjects were added to it Lord Amherst visited the college in 1827, and Lord William Bentinck examined the students in 1832 Taylor was associated with the college between 1824 and 1857 The college attracted quite a large number of Hindu students The total number of students was 120 in 1826, 204 in 1827, 199 in 1828, 152 in 1829, 320 in 1853 and 345 in 1856 The course of studies comprised history, geography, mathematics together with the rudiments of science and natural philosophy The course of study might be pursued through English or the vernacular The desire of being instructed in English was becoming predominant, and that Persian and Arabic were quite neglected The college produced excellent scholars as Professor Ram Chander, Pyare Lal Arhob, Munshi Karim-ud-din, Maulvi Zaka Ullah, Nazir Ahmad, Mohd Husain Azad, Pandit Man Phool and many others

Delhi College ceased to exist in 1857 Principal Taylor, Mr Roberts, the Headmaster and Mr Stuart, the Second Master, were killed, and Maulvi Imam Baksh, a teacher in Persian, was shot dead on charge of mutiny The building was occupied by troops for many years afterwards The College was revived in February 1872 for the purpose of promoting the study of English language among the Muhammadans of Delhi It was tansferred to the building known as the Library of Dara Shikoh and was amalgamated with the Lahore Government College from the 1st April 1877 The attempt to resuscitate the Delhi College by private means was kept alive and later was organised as an Anglo-Arabic school It was raised to intermediate and then affiliated to Delhi University in 1924, M A, classes were added to it in 1941, and the school was separated from it Delhi College suffered during the communal riots in 1947 but was reorganised in 1948 on the initiative of Jawaharlal Nehru on a denominational basis with its old name of Delhi College. It is now a constituent college, and is the only college in Delhi teaching Persian and Arabic in M A, classes

When Delhi College was amalgamated with the Government College, Lahore, the Cambridge Mission contemplated a scheme for providing tuition in the higher classes of the government curriculum to which the Lieutenant Governor was prepared to make a grant-in-aid St Stephen's Mission High School was opened shortly after the Mutiny in collaboration with the S P G Mission, Delhi

Traditional Education

G W Leitner's Report throws valuable light on the traditional learning in Delhi, for example, the total number of indigenous schools about 1882 was 216, and the total number of pupils 3,304 The figures were broken up in the district having 141 *Maqtabs* with 2,073 pupils in them, 19 Sanskrit and Nagri schools with 177 pupils, and 56 Hindi and Mahajani schools with 1,054 pupils in them Out of the total of 6,736 scholars, 4,317 were in primary, government and aided schools, whereas 2,419 scholars were in indigenous schools The prominent educational institutions were the *Deputy Ganj Maqtab*, *Madarasa* of Maulvi Nazir in Habash Khan Phatak, *Madarasa* of Hussain Baksh, the *Madrasa tul-Koran* of Chitll Darwaza, Fatehpuri Mosque school, and the Anglo-Arabic school, Delhi The largest *Pathshala* was attached to Lala Bhagwan Dass's house in Kucha Matidas, which had thirty pupils, and where Pandit Govind Ram, a distinguished scholar taught, and the largest Mahajani school in the Billimaran was conducted by Imam Ali who taught Mahajni to 80 pupils The Fatehpuri Mosque school, confiscated after the Mutiny, had been restored on the occasion of the Imperial assemblage by Lord Lytton, and the number of students studying there was 186 In these schools of indigenous learning, the additional study of Urdu and the compound division was made compulsory Formerly the best Arabic and Persian schools in India as well as of the purest Urdu literature flourished in Delhi but this could not be said now Leitner wrote that the indigenous schools in Delhi were below the average of the better schools of the kind in the Punjab

Delhi University

In the eighties of the last century new educational institutions were established, the Tibbia school was established in 1881 by Hakim Abdul Majid Khan and instructions in the main Unani system of medicine were given; St Stephens College founded in 1865, was affiliated to the Punjab University in 1882; Hindu College was founded in 1899 for the purpose of giving cheap and efficient education according to the principles of Sanatan Sabha,

and the Government High School was established in a building orginally used as the library of Dara Shikoh, and afterwards used as the Residency, and later as an artillery barrack. In 1916 the Lady Hardinge College started its course in medical science, and Ramjas College was founded in 1917

The establishment of a University in the Imperial city of Delhi formed an integral part of the scheme for the transfer of the capital of India But due to the war, the plans could not mature There were then three arts colleges and a medical college as the nucleus, and 600 students were enrolled in these colleges The bill to establish and incorporate a unitary teaching and residential University in Delhi was passed by the Legislative Assembly at its meeting on 22nd February, 1922 The framework of the University was modelled on the Dacca Act with certain modifications Sir Henry Sharp, the Education Member, assured that the principles pressed for by local colleges would be safeguarded, and that the identity of the colleges should not be merged in that of the University But this University was to be of a unitary type

Literacy and Educational Standards

For the purpose of census, a person is literate if he can both read and write with understanding in any language A person who can merely read but cannot write is not a literate While calculating the literacy rate, it is common to exclude population of the age group 0-4, but in this study the entire population including the age-group 0-4 is taken

Delhi is having the highest percentage of literate persons in the country which is largely due to the untiring efforts of the Social Education Department which launched campaigns particularly in the rural area In 1901, the proportion of literate persons was 2 7% (5 males and 0 1 females) The literacy percentage in Delhi, according to 1931 Census, is 14.06, about 19 8 in case of men, and 6 0 in case of women The figures of literacy from 1931-1971 are given below .

TABLE 1

Year	Population Total	Literate Males	Literate Females	Literate Persons	Literate Males	Literate Females	Percentage of Literates to the total population Persons	Males	Females
	Total	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
1931	6,36,246	3,69,497	2,66,749	89,472	73,377	16,095	14 06	19 86	6 03
1941	9,17,939	5,35,236	3,82,703	2,29,603	1,71,233	58,370	25 01	31 99	15 25
1951	17,44,072	9,86,538	7,57,534	6,69,073	4,24,118	2,44,955	38 96	42 99	32 34
1961	26 58,612	14,89,378	11,69,234	14,04,589	9,05,264	4,99,325	52 83	60 78	42 70
1971	40,65 698	22,57,515	18,08,183	22,90 986	14,33,472	8,57,514	56 61	63 71	47 75

The Table of figures has been reduced to a graph which precisely indicates the condition of literacy between 1931-1971. (Appendix I).

Rising Literacy

The above Table would show that there is a rising trend all along in male and female literacy from 1931 to 1971 Between 1941-51, there is a greater spurt in female literacy than in male literacy, even between 1961-71 the rise in male literacy is less than female literacy As a matter of fact, the most significant feature is the rise in female literacy, which can be explained due to the growth of national awakening Between 1941-51, the rise in female literacy outpaced male literacy

Between 1941-71 the degree of the rise in literacy is kept at a uniform rate of progress, and lacks spurt, in fact after 1961 the progress in literacy is rather slow, and not striking by any means, and this is largely due to the saturation point being reached, the literacy growth rate over 1961 is about seven per cent

There has been an increase in the percentage of total literate population, males and females in all the census tracts of Union Territory of Delhi between 1961-71 Of the different areas the New Delhi Municipal Committee is the most enlightened, but the Delhi Municipal Corporation (rural) is at the lowest rung of the ladder and there too it is the females that are mostly illiterate, and their literate percentage is less than half of the male literates

The distribution of literates over different areas in Delhi is as follows

TABLE 2

Literacy as on 1-1-1971

	Males	Females	Total
Municipal Corporation of Delhi (Urban)	11,79,481	7,34,418	19,13,899
New Delhi Municipal Committee	1,21, 843	75,882	1,97,725
Delhi Cantt.	24,190	9,401	33,591
Delhi Urban	13,25,514	8,19,701	21,45,215
Delhi Rural	1,07,958	37,813	1,45,771
Union Territory of Delhi	14,33,472	8,57,514	22,90,986
Literacy growth rate over 1961 .			7.39

TABLE 3

Educational Standard as on Sept, 1971	Persons	Males	Females
Classes IV	4,74,000	2,71,000	2,03,000
Class VI-VIII	2,16,000	1,27,000	89,000
Classes IX-X-XI	1,49,000	88,000	61,000
Higher Education (age group 17-23)	85,366	51,563	33,803
Graduates in Arts or Science	N A	N A	N A
Post Graduates in Arts or Science	N A	N A	N.A
Teaching	N A.	.	.
Engineering	N A		
Agriculture .	N A		
Veterinary	N A		
Commerce	N A		
Legal	N A		
Medical	N A		
Others	N A		

Scheduled Castes.

The following organisations have opened centres for the help of the backward classes·

1 All India Backward Classes Federation, 1950

2 Bharatiya Adimjat Sevak Sangh (1948),

3 Bhartiya Ghumentu Jan (Khana Badosh),

4 Delhi Gandhi Smarak Nidhi,

5 Gandhi Smarak Harijan Shiksha.

6 Harijan Udyogshala.

The following schemes have been introduced for the benefit of students belonging to the backward classes·

(a) Primary stage· Free tuition and stipends of Rs 30/- per annum to students (whose guardians' income is less than Rs 200/- p m) for the purchase of books, stationary etc;

(b) Secondary stage: Free tuition and stipends at rates between Rs 30/- and Rs. 60/- per annum according to class in which a student is studying;

(c) University stage: Exemption from fees if the income of the guardians is below Rs 300/- p. m. and in addition, scholarships under the Government of India Schemes

The enrolment of Scheduled Castes/scheduled tribes percentage-wise for 1971 is as follows:

(Extent of coverage)

Classes I-V		Classes VI-VIII		Classes IX-X-XI	
Sch Castes	Sch Tribes	Sch Castes	Sch. Tribes	Sch Castes	Sch Tribes
86 7		41 4		21 9	.

General Education

Primary and Basic Schools, Secondary Schools and Colleges:

In the field of education, the whole period from April 1 1922, to March 31, 1927, may be described as one of steady growth in all directions The Delhi Municipality introduced compulsory primary education in two wards of the city from April 1925, and subsequently the application of the Compulsory Education Act was extended to other areas. Generous provision was made in the form of additional grants to privately-managed schools The establishment under a notification of the Local Administration (1925-26), produced remarkable effects in the extension of education A High School Examination was initiated which supplanted the Punjab Matriculation Examination Another important item which speeded up the educational activity was the extension of the provision (with certain modifications) of the new (11th) edition of the Punjab Educational Code to the Delhi Province with effect from 1st April, 1926 The introduction of a new system for the award of government educational grants to the District Boards, to the Imperial Delhi Municipal Committee and the Notified Area Committee of Delhi, 1924-25, promoted the educational cause Other important items were the raising of high schools for boys and girls to college status, the opening up of schools, primary, anglo-vernacular and night schools for adults and the preparation

and submission of a five-year programme of educational expansion, called for by the Government of India in 1926-27 The most important agency for imparting education was the Delhi Municipality which began to extend the Punjab Compulsory Education Act Between 1930-31 more than 4/5th area under the Municipality was included within the operation of the Act In addition to the Municipal Committee and District Board, the Haiely Rifah-i-Am Society and the B S Jat High School at Khair Garhi, did useful educational work Delhi owes much to Miss Gmeinar for the education of women In 1929 there were in Delhi city 58 primary schools and primary departments, 14 middle schools, 8 high schools and 3 colleges Between 1922 and 1927 the number of educational institutions in Delhi increased by 26 3% whereas in the Punjab, the increase was 75% After the introduction of compulsory education, enrolment increased significantly Between 1927 and 1929 the enrolment was almost doubled The enrolment of primary schools for boys increased from 7,891 to 50,464 within the short span of six years (1927-1933)

It is no exaggeration to say that the metropolitan city of Delhi provides one of the best educational facilities in the country Education is now provided to every child in a school within one and four kilometres in the urban and rural area respectively This has been largely due to the passing of the Delhi Primary Education Act by Parliament in 1950 In 1905, there was only one high school, but in 1971 there were 514 higher secondary schools Science teaching has been introduced in the primary schools, 850 primary schools were equipped with science during 1969-70, science clubs were established in 104 schools and 100 junior scholarships for those showing proficiency in science subjects were earmarked A major share of scholarships has been bagged by the Delhi students in the All India Science Talent Search Scheme Special classes were held for talented children obtaining 55% marks The curricula and the text books have been revised by the experts of the National Council of Educational Research and Training, and common integrated syllabus is now followed, a rightful place is given to social studies in the scheme of knowledge Physical education is now a part of primary and secondary education, and coaching camps are organised under the Delhi Council for Sports Military scholarships are offered to students whose parents died in the Indo-Pak War

Till recently the responsibility of secondary education did not rest with a single agency But on 1st July, 1970, the Delhi Administration took over 413 middle and 11 higher secondary schools

from the Municipal Corporation of Delhi and thus assumed the unified control. The Directorate of Education frames the syllabi until VIII class The Central Board of Secondary Education prepares the syllabi for IX classes. The overall administration of education is under the Lieutenant-Governor assisted by the Chief-Secretary but is supervised by the Chief Executive Councillor A close supervision is exercised by the Directorate of Education

There has been a rapid expansion of secondary education, and concrete steps have been taken to enrich its contents. Since 1961 great emphasis has been placed on the teaching of science The following Table would indicate the growing popularity with science.

Year	Total No of schools	No of Schools with Physics/Chemistry			No of Schools with Biology		
		Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1950—51	N A	23	5	28	11	5	16
1971—72	514	217	68	285	116	68	184

There is an increasing use of audio-visual aids Twenty-six buildings during the First Plan, and seventy during the Second Plan have been built During 1970-71, supplementary examinations were introduced with objective types of questions eliciting short answers. Teaching of General Science has been envisaged as a separate discipline in Physics Three Science centres-cum-central workshops have been set up to enable the students and teachers to have practical experience in the field Instruction through correspondence has been introduced

Patrachar Vidyalaya

It was set up in 1968 with an enrolment at 500 which increased to 3,000 in 1970-71 Free milk and milk powder under the Red Cross Scheme is made available in selected schools

During 1970-71 three sets of questions were given at the middle school examination in English and Mathematics with the object of minimising scope of unfair means and at the same time to induce students to have a wide coverage of the subject matter The average annual cost per pupil in a primary school, according to 1967-68 data, is Rs 93 6, in middle schools, Rs 114 9, and in higher secondary school Rs. 258 9.

The major developments in the post-Independence period embrace almost all the fields of education It would suffice here to indicate some of the major landmarks *

Number of schools

Year	Primary	Middle	Hr Secondary
1946 47 . .	N A	66	43 (High)
1966—67	926	461	407
1967—68	913	462	423
1968 —69 .	922	470	445
1969—70 .	941	472	453
1970—71	1,344	463	474
1971—72	1,417	402	514

Agency-wise number of Higher Secondary schools in 1971-72

Govt schools	313
Central schools	5
NDMC schools	3
Unaided and other schools	45
Aided schools	148
	514

Number of students

Year	Primary	Middle	Hr Secondary
1946—47	N A	18,097	22,732
1966—67 .	2,57,447	1,85,753	2,86,900
1967—68 .	2,65,940	1,89,333	2,98,900
1968—69	2,73,557	1,94,930	3,05,985
1969—70	2,82,646	2,01,345	3,13,447
1970—71	3,91,388	93,539	3,22,778

**Source* . Directorate of Education, Delhi

Number of teachers

Year	Men	Women	Total
1966—67	16,159	13,287	29,446
1967—68	16,352	13,670	30,022
1968—69	16,803	13,990	30,793
1969—70	17,360	14,440	31,800
1970—71	17,944	14,959	32,903

Percentage of School-going children in schools

Year	Age Group 6-11			Age Group 11-14			Age Group 14-17		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1950—51	62	37 3	51	36	16 2	26 9	22 5	5 6	14 9
1970—71	61 9	49 6	56 3	87 8	73 4	81 2	96 4	89 4	93 1

As is evident from the above tables, there is a phenomenal all round rise in education at school level In rural areas, the state of education is as follows.

Education in rural areas (1966–67)

Institutions	No	Percentage to total institutions
1 Primary Schools . .	198	2 2
2 Middle Schools .	80	17 0
3 High/Higher Secondary Schools	45	10 6
4 Arts & Science Colleges	1	2 7

The basic schools were introduced in the rural areas of Delhi in 1948 when 150 junior basic schools were opened that year. By 1954-55 practically each of the Delhi villages had either a junior or a senior basic school. By 1971, there has been about four time increase in their numbers since 1948-49.

There is, furthermore, a correlation between the expansion in education and increased in expenditure on education as is evident from the following Tables:

Expenditure on education under Delhi Administration
1948-49 *to* 1970-71

Year	Total expenditure of Delhi Administration	Total expenditure on education of Delhi Admn	Percentage to total expenditure on education
	Rs	Rs	
1948—49	2,36,37,167	36,14,245	15 3
1951—52	3,10,72,466	46,36,442	14 9
1955—56	7,43,89,171	1 76,59,615	23 7
1960—61	13,58 15,000	2,71,99,400	20 0
1970—71*			

*NOTE —The expenditure of Delhi Administration including capital and loans during 1970-71 and 1971-72 was 9130 69 lakhs and 9292 73 lakhs out of which expenditure on education excluding capital expenditure was 2001 98 and 2046 93 lakhs respectively

Higher Education

The University of Delhi was incorporated as a unitary teaching and residential university by an Act of Central Legislature in 1922 to which were affiliated three arts colleges *viz* St Stephen's College, Hindu College and Ramjas College, Lady Hardings College was still, affiliated to the Punjab University The original conception of a unitary teaching university had to be given up gradually in favour of a federal university Subject to the control and the co-ordinating influence of the University the colleges remained an autonomous teaching unit, working in co-operation with each other and with the University In 1933, the old Vice-Regal House was handed over by the Government of India to the University, and it was not till 1941 that colleges started shifting to the campus Sir Maurice Gwyer, the Vice-Chancellor (1938-50) was the real architect of this University The Delhi University (Amendment) Act of 1952 made the University a teaching and an affiliating University and provision was

made for the affiliation of colleges Colleges were permitted outside the campus accordingly The territorial jurisdiction of the University was originally limited to the area of ten miles radius from the Convocation Hall, now it extends to the entire area of Delhi Of its fifty colleges and institutions (1972-Appendix II), the following were located in the campus · St Stephen's College, Hindu College, Ramjas College, Indraprastha College, Sri Ram College of Commerce, Miranda House, Hans Raj College, Central Institute of Education, Delhi School of Social Work Kirori Mal College, Institute of Post-Graduate (Evening) Studies, Daulat Ram College, Vallabhbhai Patel Chest Institute and the Institute of Economic Growth. The new University Medical College is also housed temporarily in the campus

The following Table would indicate the growth of Delhi University (1922-1969)

Item	1922	1947—48	1960—61*	1969
Colleges	3	7	28	46
Faculties	3	4	9	9
Departments .		11	34	43
Students (total)	800	4,182	20,774	75,621
University teachers .	2		245	
Teachers in colleges	76	173	920	2,939
List of Girls students	5	712	6,487	29,628

*N C E R T Report (1961).

Facultywise distribution of students as in 1970 is given in Appendix III The total enrolment in the year 1971 was 97,247 as indicated below :

Total enrolment of Delhi University—1971

	Males	Females	Total
Non-Collegiate		3,195	3,195
Correspondence Courses	11,132	3,589	14,721
External Cell	9,635	5,148	14,793
Undergraduate .	29,324	24,900	54,224
Post-Graduate	7 122	3,192	10,314
Grand Total	57,213	40,034	97,247

Courses of Study

One hundred and twenty two courses of studies are available (1972) under eight faculties Arts and Social Sciences (66), Science (13), Law (5), Medical Sciences (17), Education (4), Technology (3), Music and Fine Arts (6) and Mathematics (8) English is the medium of instruction except in Hindi and other modern Indian languages Under-graduate students are given option to answer question in B A pass and qualifying examinations in Hindi Three-year degree course has been introduced which is the concomitant of the Higher Secondary School course of eleven years of which three years are meant for the Higher Secondary stage Pending introduction of three years higher secondary course in all the schools of Delhi, provision was made to admit students passing the High School Examination to the preparatory classes in colleges The preparatory classes were abolished from 1962-63 The tutorial system was introduced in 1958 with the help of a grant from the Ford Foundation It was first confined to final years of Hons students who in a group of four would be supervised by a tutor an hour every week with some definite written work It has now been made compulsory for students studying in B A (Pass), B Sc (General), B Com B Sc, (Hons), M A, M Com and M Sc courses Advanced studies are available in Physics, Chemistry, Botany Zoology, Economic Development and Economic History, Sociology and Agricultural Economics

The School of Correspondence Courses and Continuing Education was established by the University of Delhi in July 1962 to provide an efficient and less expensive method of education at the university level in the context of the national development of India It provides instructions through correspondence for the B A (Pass) B Com (Pass) and B Sc (General) Group 'A' Course The total enrolment in 1972 was about 20 000 students Nearly 85% of the total students enrolled in the correspondence course are employed persons

The number of foreign students studying in the University has considerably increased In 1947-48, there were only three foreign students, but in 1971-72, the number was 647

The average annual cost per pupil, according to 1967-68 data, is Rs 885 9 and the average salary for teacher per month, according to 1967-68 data, is Rs 728 6

The following data reflects the over-all development of higher education in Delhi

UNIVERSITY OF DELHI

Enrolment and out-turn of under graduate classes

TABLE 1

Year	Arts	Science	Commerce	Education	Medicine	Library Science	Engineering	Law	Total
1960—61									
Enrolment	5,664	1,116	338	131	151	55	210	284	7,949
Out-turn	2,548	708	220	108	35	34	120	176	3,949
1965—66									
Enrolment	7,938	1,465	841	187	241	39	220	433	11,364
Out-turn	3,495	1,111	260	150	93	31	82	186	5,408
1966—67									
Enrolment	8,569	1,884	852	182	224	61	307	378	12,457
Out-turn	4,375	1,169	359	169	111	31	105	231	6,550
1967—68									
Enrolment	10,669	2,799	1,021	321	208	49	306	397	15,770
Out-turn	4,863	1,272	349	332	104	35	107	295	7,357
1968—69									
Enrolment	11,261	3,273	1,186	353	209	44	302	432	17,060
Out-turn	5,861	1,474	613	280	130	42	154	264	8,818
1969—70									
Enrolment	12,318	2,699	3,984	353	223	40	291	739	20,647

UNIVERSITY OF DELHI

Enrolment and out-turn of post-graduate classes

TABLE 2

Year	Arts	Science	Commerce	Education	Medicine	Lib Sc	Law	Engg	Others	Total
1960—61										
Enrolment	1,333	99	31	14	70	9	6		64	1,626
Out-turn	509	86	22	16	6	11	4		45	699
1965—66										
Enrolment	1,241	205	47	39	157	21	8	.	77	1,795
Out-turn	1,053	140	27	18	78	24	1		32	1,373
1966—67										
Enrolment	1,156	228	89	49	112	16	15		100	1,765
Out-turn	858	142	21	20	84	14	2		55	1,196
1967—68										
Enrolment	1,343	304	112	38	154	20	13	4	110	2,098
Out-turn	835	158	20	40	102	14	10		27	1,206
1968—69										
Enrolment	1,644	260	139	34	129	9	11	10	117	2,353
Out-turn	1,046	148	42	39	113	18	1	7	106	1,520
1969—70										
Enrolment	1,733	351	226	37	169	16	9	5	112	2,658

UNIVERSITY OF DELHI

Enrolment and out-turn for research degrees

TABLE 3

Year	Arts & Social Sciences	Science	Education	Medicine	Law	Music	Total
1960—61							
Enrolment	122	51	9	5			187
Out-turn	35	20					55
1965—66							
Enrolment .	110	56	4	6			176
Out-turn	31	30					61
1966—67							
Enrolment	167	56	5	5	11	3	247
Out-turn	35	25					60
1967—68							
Enrolment . . .	15	3	4	5	4		174
Out-turn	52	33	1	4			90
1968—69							
Enrolment . .	153	66	3	6	6	1	235
Out-turn	40	46	2				88

UNIVERSITY OF DELHI

Enrolment and out-turn of women students

TABLE 4

Year	Total		Women		Percentage of Women Students	
	Enrolment	Out-turn	Enrolment	Out-turn	Enrolment	Out-tnrn
1960—61	10,707	4,834	2,103	1,653	20 0	34 2
1965—66	16,634	8,666	6,515	3,715	39 8	42 8
1966—67	18,285	10,128	7,307	4,433	40 0	43 7
1967—68	21,964	11,096	9,481	4,823	43 1	43 4
1968—69	25,417	20,934	10,104	10,012	40 0	47 7

Women Students

Both the enrolment and the out-turn percentages of women students, in all the courses taken together, increased remarkably in about nine years, the former much more than the latter The enrolment percentage doubled, but the out-turn percentage increased by a little more than 1/3rd only

Though the boys and girls of college going age are expected to be almost equal in number on the basis of the male and female population figures in the census, yet the enrolment percentage of girls never reached 50% in the decade under report Of course the out-turn percentage in 1968-69 did go up quite nearer to it i e 47 7%

There was an increasing trend both in the enrolment and the out-turn percentages with only a little aberration here and there The enrolment percentage after having increased from year to year ducked in the last year by 3 1% and in the out-turn percentage there was a dip of 0 3% in 1967-68, these are not substantial figures and may have been due to the different casual factors.

The girls had always an edge over the boys in the passing out percentage If examined year-wise it is found that the girls surpassed the boys the most remarkably in the first and the last but one year of the decade In 1960-61, the passing out percentage of the girls was higher by 41 6% and in 1968-69 by 27 8%, in between the difference was not so remarkable The women education has gathered momentum during all these years and girls from lower strata of society have been coming up for higher education, yet there has always been a difference in the general socio-economic levels of the college going boys and girls though the difference has been narrowing down as a matter of fact it has not been wiped out even till now because education of girls has not seeped down to the lowest strata of society as in the case of boys As they come from the higher strata of society, the girls show better results in the examination This superior achievement of theirs is also due to their being more home confined and not so much subject to the distractions outside

Undergraduate & Postgraduate Courses

Arts.—In Arts the enrolment percentage went on decreasing steadily at the under-graduate level, the same thing is seen at the post-graduate level too, though there was a spurt in 1968-69 of 4 9% The total decline in enrolment percentage is much more at the post-graduate level from 81 9% to 65 4% i e by 16 5% than

at the under-graduate level from 71 6 to 60 0% i e 11 6% Decline in the enrolment percentage in Arts courses shows that the students began to look for job-oriented courses more and more But in spite of the decline in the enrolment percentage the out-turn percentage was always more than 64% at the under-graduate level and 69% at the post-graduate level and these figures are much more than the percentage in all the other courses taken together.

One remarkable feature is that the passing out percentage of the Arts students at the under-graduate level was always lower than the average passing out percentage except in 1968-69 when it was slightly more by 0 4% The picture is much better at the post-graduate level where the passing out percentages did not compare so unfavourably with the average, they were more often higher This was probably due to the fact that the poor students mostly dropped out after graduation

Science.—At the undergraduate level there was a slight dip of 1 2% in the enrolment percentage in 1965-66 after five years, but since that year there was a steady increase till 1969-70 when the percentage slumped down suddenly from 19 1% to 13 0% (by 5 9%) in spite of the fact that the enrolment percentage was not so high in the previous year for an important discipline like Science Loss of Arts and Science was the gain of Commerce in which enrolment percentage jumped up by 11 7% over the previous year, this shows the tendency to go to job-oriented courses There was a slight increase in Law too by 1% but in all other courses there was a decline

The enrolment at the post-graduate level went up by 5 4% during the early years of the decade when it jumped from 6% in 1960-61 to 11% in 1965-66 But since then it fluctuated between 11 0% to 14 4%

The passing out percentage at the under-graduate level was remarkably higher than the average of the passing out percentage in all the courses till 1966-67 It began to go down after that This may have been due to the tendency of the brighter students to shift at the beginning to the science courses which seemed to be somewhat job-oriented till a sort of glut swamped the science area At the post-graduate level also the passing out percentage in science was lower than the average passing out percentage after the year 1965-66

Commerce.—The enrolment percentage at the under-graduate level fluctuated between 4 2% and 7 4% upto 1969-70, but in 1969-70, it jumped to 18 6% which is highly remarkable It

shows an increase of 11 7% over the previous year. At the post-graduate level there were two spurts but none so prominent. The first one was in 1966-67 when the enrolment percentage increased by 2.4%, after that it rose rather slowly till the year 1969-70 when the second jump of 2.6% came which was much less than the jump at the undergraduate level that year As a matter of fact the big jump in enrolment percentage at the under-graduate level in 1969-70 was going to project itself at the post-graduate level only after a few years All this shows the growing popularity of Commerce because of its being job-oriented

At the under-graduate level the passing out percentage in Commerce was more than the average passing out percentage in all the subjects taken together in the first year but then it went down below in the middle years It became equal to it again in 1968-69 Thus there was no definite trend in this aspect at the under-graduate level but at the post-graduate level the passing out percentage was always remarkably less than the average passing out percentage after 1965-66 This may have been due to heavy courses in post-graduate Commerce

Education.—The enrolment percentage at the undergraduate level had a fluctuating trend in the decade, though the range of the fluctuation was not much, it wavered only between 1 6% and 2 0% But at the post-graduate level the enrolment percentage increased up to 1966-67 and after that it steadily declined probably because of the glut in the market The enrolment percentage never went beyond 2 7% at this level

One very remarkable feature is that at the under-graduate level the passing out percentage in education was always much higher than the mean of the passing out percentage in all the courses Such a high passing out percentage may have been due to a lot of weeding at the admission stage and intensive training during the course and also because of the course being quite meaningful to the students At the post-graduate level the trend in this aspect is fluctuating

Medicine.—The enrolment percentage at the under-graduate level increased from 1 8% in 1960-61 to 2 16 in 1965-66 but since then it steadily decreased from year to year and came down to 1% only in 1969-70 At the post-graduate level it showed a fluctuating trend It fluctuated between 3 4% and 8 7%

In 1960-61 the passing out percentage in Medicine at the under-graduate level was only 23%, much less than the average of the passing out percentage in all the subjects, 49 7% that year Gradually the gap between these two percentages narrowed down till it almost disappeared in 1966-67 when it remained to be of 2 6% only and the very next year, in 1967-68 the tables turned and the passing out percentage in the course out-paced the average passing out percentage In the year 1968-69, a difference of 10 5% was in favour of the passing out percentage in the subject This means that the stagnation in the course gradually lessened The same story is repeated in case of the post-graduate level too

Library Science.—The enrolment percentage shows somewhat dwindling trend at the under-graduate level It started with 7% in 1960-61 and came down to 3% in the next five years i e 1965-66 and remained there till 1968-69 with a hump of 5% in 1966-67 In the last year of the decade it came down to 2% only The actual enrolment figures show that though the rush for higher education went on increasing in enrolment in this course which started with 55 came down to 40 in the last year of the decade with a little fluctuation in between It is really strange because the increase in the demand for librarians should have boosted up the enrolment The poor enrolment may have been due to lack of enough seats in the training institutions

At the post-graduate level too the picture is not encouraging The enrolment percentage ranged between 4% and 1 1% It was near the upper limit in the middle years and near the lower limit in the beginning and the ending years of the decade The enrolment figures never shot up beyond 21

The passing out percentage in this subject both at the undergraduate and post-graduate levels was always more than the average passing out percentage by quite a large margin except in 1966-67 when the difference at the under-graduate level was slightly in favour of the latter by 1 8% only This might have been due to proper selection, intensive training and the courses being quite meaningful to the students

Engineering.—As in other professional courses the enrolment percentage both at the graduate and the post-graduate levels was always very low At the former level it went from 2 6% in 1960-61 to 1 4% in 1969-70, as a matter of fact the percentage dwindled from year to year except for a hump of 2 4% in 1966-67 At the post-graduate level the enrolment started in 1967-68

with .2% only. It increased to .5% in 1968-69 but again went down to .2% in 1969-70. These figures are not at all encouraging. Though the passing out percentage in the course at the under-graduate level had some edge over the average passing out percentage in 1960-61, and was closely equal to it in 1968-69, it was much lower in comparison with it in the intervening years

At the post-graduate level the passing out started only in 1968-69 when fortunately its percentage was a little higher than the average percentage

Law.—The enrolment percentage fluctuated between 2 5% and 3 8% at the under-graduate level, but in all the years it was higher than in any other professional course except Commerce

At the post-graduate level the enrolment percentage was always very low in the decade It ranged between 0 3% and 0 8% and was always less than in the other professional course except in library science in the year 1968-69 when the enrolment in library science was less by 0 1 per cent, and in engineering which started quite late The post-graduate course in law probably did not become as popular as the under-graduate one, probably because it does not increase one's job opportunities besides the lecturer's job

Research

Arts & Social Sciences.—Both the enrolment and the out-turn at the research level was the largest in this field, excepting Science during the year 1968-69 when the out-turn in Science was more by 6 6%

The passing out percentage in this field was always less in all the years than the average passing out percentage This shows a lot of stagnation and wastage (it is difficult to find out their extent separately)

Science.—The enrolment and out-turn percentages were next to Arts and Social Sciences, but predominently much more than in the professional fields Of course there was an exception, as pointed out earlier, in 1968-69 when the enrolment percentage in Science shot up beyond Arts and Social Sciences even by 6 6%

Though second in enrolment and out-turn percentages, it was in all the years at the top in the passing out percentage which was always much higher than the average passing out percentage. The

reason seems to be that the students have to work at their research problems regularly in the Sciences and do not take it up merely as a side engagement as many do in the Arts and Social Sciences and some professional subjects even like Education and Law

General Observations.—The enrolment, thus, was all along predominently higher at the graduate and post-graduate levels in the Arts and Science courses, more so in the former always above 59% than in the professional courses, viz, Commerce, Education, Law, Medicine, Library Science, Engineering and others

The total enrolment percentage at the under-graduate level, in the professional courses all taken together, was as follows from year to year.

1960—61	14 4
1965—66	17 1
1966—67	15 8
1967—68	14 6
1968—69	14 6
1969—70	27 0

The enrolment percentage shows only a slight fluctuation till the last year of the decade, 1969-70 It started with 14 4 and went up to 17 1 only till 1965-66, but in the last year 1969-70, it shot up to 27 0% It has, however, to be noted that only the enrolment percentages of Commerce and Law increased this percentage, much more so the former As a matter of fact, the enrolment percentages in the other professional courses went down a little as compared to the previous year, 1968-69, and they too contributed to the increase in the percentages of Commerce and Law

The total enrolment of women at the higher educational level was not on a par with the men even near the end of the last decade The percentage of women was in 1968-69 less than that of men by 2 3 per cent

Professional And Technical Schools And Colleges

After 1947, there has been a considerable emphasis on the growth of professional institutions. Some of the professional institutions which have gained reputation are as follows

Delhi School Of Social Work.—The Department of Social Work was instituted in 1948. The instruction for the M A Course in social work is imparted by the Delhi School of Social Work

which was established by the Y M C A of India in 1947 The school was affiliated to the University of Delhi in 1948 as a post-graduate institution, and provides facilities for special instruction in the field of Labour Welfare and Personnel Management, Rural Work, Institutional and After-Care Services, and the Medical Social Work

Legal Studies.—The Department of Law which was started in 1924 embarked on a period of growth under the inspiring leadership of Sir Maurice Gwyer Provision has been made for the award of Doctor of Civil Law and Ph D degrees The Indian Law Institute, Bhagwandas Road, New Delhi, established in 1956 promotes the study of the science of law at an advanced level The main publication is the *Journal of the Indian Law Institute* (Quarterly)

Delhi College Of Engineering And The Indian Institute Of Technology.—Until 1941 when Delhi Polytechnic was established by the Government of India, Delhi's only technical institution was a small carpentry school in a dilapidated building in Faiz Bazar In its first year, the institution started offering part-time evening courses in Electrical Mechanical Engineering, Applied Science Textile and Chemical Technology, and Architecture and Art In 1942, regular full-time All India Diploma courses of the Association of Principals of Technical Institutions (India) were started in various subjects In 1947 these courses renamed as National Diplomas, came under the purview of the newly established All-India Council for Technical Institution In 1953, Delhi University instituted a new Faculty of Technology and the Government of India decided to affiliate the Delhi Polytechnic to the Delhi University for the Degree of Bachelor's courses in Engineering Chemical Engineering, Textile Technology Architecture and Commerce in places of the full-time National Diploma Courses By 1959, the institution offered the full-time degree courses such as B E (Electrical/Mechanical/Civil), B Ch E , B Text B Arch , and B Com in addition to National Certificates and Diplomas in various other subjects

As a result of the inadequate campus Commerce courses were discontinued the Architecture Department went over to the Schools of Planning and Architecture in October, 1959 The College was taken over by the Delhi Administration in 1963, and 75% of the seats in the College were since then reserved for students from the Union Territory of Delhi It offers a two year full time/three year part-time M Sc Degree Course in Structural

Engineering According to the new scheme, instructions were divided into two parts, Part I, Part II Over 5,000 students have passed

The Indian Institute of Technology began as a College of Engineering in 1951, and later in 1963 was declared the Institute of Technology where its object has been defined as to 'promote the highest standard of Engineering' In Chemical, Civil, Electrical and Textile Engineering, under-graduate courses are available, M Sc courses in Chemistry, Physics and Mathematics are available

The School of Planning and Architecture was founded on 16 October, 1959 after the integration of the Department of Architecture of the Delhi Polytechnic with the School of Town and Country Planning The School is under the administrative control of the Ministry of Education and Social Welfare, and offers B A (Archaeology) and National Diploma courses in Architecture

The Women's Polytechnic, Kashmire Gate, Delhi, set up in September, 1962, in pursuance of the recommendations of the National Council of Women's Education, is under the Delhi Administration Courses are offered in Architectural Assistanship, Electronics, Interior Decoration, Commercial Art Library Science Secretarial Practice and Medical Laboratory technology Diplomas are awarded by the State Board of Technical Education Seats offered in each course are 25, except in Architectural Assistantship where 30 girls may be admitted Out of the total seats, 15% are reserved for Scheduled Castes, and 5% for Scheduled Tribes

There are also the Govind Ballabh Pant Polytechnic, the Pusa Polytechnic (on the campus of the Industrial Training Institute, Pusa) and the Boy's Polytechnic at Kashmire Gate The courses in these polytechnics include Civil, Electrical and Mechanical Engineering The Pant Polytechnic offers courses in Automobile Engineering also A college of Pharmacy and the Institute of Commercial Practices are also functioning in the Territory

Medical Education.—The Vallabhbhai Patel Chest Institute started the first Diploma course in the study of Tuberculosis in 1947 for training doctors in chest diseases with special reference to Tuberculosis and for conducting research on problems pertaining to these diseases The Institute was founded on 6th April, 1949 by Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel, and was initially equipped for teaching

only The Institute specialises in chemical research, pathology, Bacteriology, Bio-Chemistry and Cardio-Respiratory Physiology. The courses awarded in study are on D T D (Diploma in Tuberculosis Diseases), M L T (Medical Laboratory Technology) and training of doctors and science graduates in research techniques.

Lady Hardinge Medical College and the Hospital for Women was the outcome of an appeal for funds issued by Lady Hardinge in 1912 to commemorate the visit of Her Majesty Queen Marry in 1911-12 The annual report of 1918 mentions only 34 students on the roll, and the College was affiliated to the Punjab University The total number of under-graduates on rolls is 500, and 46 in the Post-graduate courses Since 1950, the institution has been affiliated to the University of Delhi The M B B S course is 4½ years with compulsory internship of one year The undergraduates also attend on male patients in the Willingdon Hospital The Willingdon Hospital is integrated with the Lady Hardinge Medical College for the purpose of academic facilities The institute has been recognised for post-graduate teaching since 1956 It is one of the first centres which took up a study of protein malnutrition and vitamin B 12 deficiency Attached to it is a training school for nurses

The All India Institute Of Medical Sciences.—An Act of Parliament in 1956 established the All India Institute of Medical Sciences in pursuance of the recommendations of the Bhave Committee It is an autonomous institution which grants its own medical degrees, diploma and other academic distinctions It imparts medical education in all the branches so as to demonstrate a high standard of medical education to all medical colleges and other allied institutions in India

The Institute consists of a massive complex of buildings, housing the teaching units, research laboratories, a hospital, outpatient clinics, library and an assembly hall This is a residential institution in which all the faculty members, other staff and students live together There are seven hostels for undergraduate students (six for the boys and one for the girls) with a capacity of 401 rooms The hospital has 750 beds including the paying beds (1971) The faculty of the Institute comprises 154 members distributed in 28 different departments

The first batch of undergraduate students was admitted to the Institute in the year 1956 and since then the A I I M S has been admitting 50 students each year to its M B B S course Stu-

dents are selected on the basis of their performance in a competitive entrance examination Of the 50 seats, ten are reserved for the Scheduled Castes

The Institute offers masters degree in 32 subjects and Ph D degree in 28 different fields of specialities The total number of post-graduates is 345 For the para-medical personnel, the institute runs courses of three-year duration, leading to a B Sc (Hons) degree in medical laboratory technology, physiotherapy and occupational therapy In addition, the Institution offers four different courses in clinical technology, each of two-year duration leading to the award of a diploma in audiometry, radiography, optometry and orthoptics Basic and applied researches are currently being carried out in the field of physiology, neuro-biology, nutrition, molecular biology, immunology, genetics and orthoptics Over three hundred scientific articles, pertaining to original findings made in the institute have been published during the year 1969-70

The College of Nursing, New Delhi, established in 1946, used for some time the laboratory and class rooms of the Lady Hardinge College for physiology, anatomy and bacteriology It developed rural health centres and the child guidance clinic The four year B Sc (Hons) Nursing Degree course includes, besides nursing, preventive medicine, public health nursing, and midwifery The post-certificate course are the Midwife Tutors course and the Nursing Administrative course The Edwina Mountbatten Nursing Van operates in the rural area of Najafgarh and is also a training field for B Sc (Hons) nursing students

The Central Institute of Education, founded on 19 December 1947 is affiliated to Delhi University for B Ed , M Ed and Ph D degrees

The Teachers' Training College, Jamia Millia, provides two types of training courses, B Ed and Diploma courses There is one training school for teachers in Daryaganj

The Lady Irwin College established in 1932 is the first institution in India to offer Home Science at College level It offers courses in B Sc (General) and (Hons) in Home Science, B Ed , M Sc (Food and Nutrition), M Sc (Rural Community Extension) and M Sc (Child development and family relationship)

The Indian Agricultural Research Institute popularly known as the Pusa Institute, is recognised as the premier agricultural institute of the country where various problems of agricultural sci-

ence are investigated. The Institute was founded at Pusa in Bihar whence it was transferred to its present site in 1936, and recently the Institute has greatly expanded its activities for experimental fields The post-graduate training and various disciplines constitute the important part of the Institute In 1958 the Institute received the status of the university for imparting post-graduate training in agricultural science and for granting the M A, and Ph D degrees to those students who successfully complete the prescribed courses including research work The schedule of instructions has been organised into 99 distinct courses of lectures and practicals

Besides these colleges and institutions, the National Institute of Sciences of India, the Indian Council of Agricultural Research, the Indian Council of Historical Research, Council of Scientific and Industrial Research, the National Council of Educational Research and Training, the National Physical Laboratory, the Indian Council of Medical Research, INSDOC and its documentation service, the Wadia Institute of Himalayan Geology, the Indian Meteorological Department, the Indian Standards Institution, Sri Ram Institute for Industrial Research, and Central Road Research Institute are other bodies that extend the activities of scientific studies and research There are seven I T I 's in Delhi engaged in the training of craftsman in engineering and non-engineering courses

Schools For The Cultivation Of Fine Arts

The foundation of the All India Council for Technical Education gave an impetus to the study of art The Council instituted the National Diploma in Art (comprising drawing, painting, sculpture and commercial art) The government also sponsored the establishment of the National School for Drama and the Children's Film Society The following are some of the major art institutions

The College of Art, a co-educational institution was formerly the Art Department of Delhi Polytechnic (now College of Engineering), but in 1964 the Art Department was separated and became an independent College of Art under Delhi Administration The College imparts instructions in drawing and painting, sculpture and commercial art, and prepares students for the award of National Diploma in Art, and of the All India Council for Technical Education Ministry of Education Government of India The College holds morning and evening shifts, the for-

mer offers a complete course of five years, and the latter of seven years Casual students are also admitted Some of its students have won international recognition

Women's Polytechnic of the Delhi Administration, established in 1961 offers training free of charge in commercial art, interior decoration and architectural assistantship to women students

The Sarada Ukil School of Art, a co-educational institution founded in 1926 by the late Shri Sarada Ukil the pioneer of art movement in northern India, provides training in indigenous arts and crafts for (i) a five-year diploma course, and (ii) one year course in fresco-painting

In the Jamia Milia Islamia, emphasis is laid on the teaching of arts and crafts

Noorpur Art Centre established in 1963 imparts training in dances like *Bharatanatyam* and *Orissi*

Shanker's Weekly initiated the annual international children's art competition as well as on-the-spot painting competitions for children The annual children's art exhibition is a special feature which brings together art loving children to compete with each other

The Kathak Kendra, Mata Sundri Road, established in 1955, provides a three-year course of training *Kathak dance* The Bharatha Natya Academy, Karol Bagh set up in 1954, provides instruction in the *Bharatanatyam* The Bharatiya Sangeet Vidyalaya (Kamla Nagar) established on the 2nd May 1949 provides for the study and practice of vocal and instrumental music and classical dances, and prepares students for the I M C (Madhyama) and B Mus and Sangeet Visharad, i e Inter and degree examinations in music and dance prescribed by the Bhatkhande Sangeet Vidyapeeth, Lucknow, and also recognised by the Sangeet Natak Akademi, New Delhi

Oriental Schools And Colleges

As compared with the 19th century, Oriental institutions are now losing their popularity, but there are quite a few Arabic and Sanskrit institutions where Sanskrit and Arabic are taught In order to revive interest in these languages, the Government of

India extends financial aid; for example, in the case of Sanskrit, the Government gave a grant of Rs 345,188/- to various Sanskrit institutions in the Union Territory of Delhi between 1965-66

Of the notable Arabic and Persian institutions, the *Madrasa-i-Abdul Rab* which was founded in 1875 by Maulana Abdul Rab at Kashmire Gate, is now situated at Hamilton Road, and Maulana Mohammed Shafi has really done a great service to this institution by his whole-hearted devotion to the cause of religious and Arabic learning which is cultivated here

Another famous institution is the *Madrasa-i-Aminia* founded by a reputed scholar, Hazrat Maulana Aminuddin, in about 1897, situated at present near Kashmire Gate, opposite the Police Station where Arabic, Persian and Urdu, along with religious studies are cultivated It had earned a wide reputation under the headmastership of Maulana Anwar Shah of Kashmir Before the Partition, about 500 students received instruction in Arabic, Persian Metaphysics Ethics, Medicine, History, Logic and other allied subjects The highest course of study is *Dars-e-Hadith* During 1947, the school suffered when a large number of students abandoned it At present there are only 47 students and 6 teachers and Hafiz-ul-Rehman is in charge of this School

Madrasa-i-Alia, Fatehpuri, was founded in 1902, and prepares students at present for the Oriental examinations, the *Moulvi* and *Munshi* Fazil There are about 100 students in the primary classes, and 35 in the *Dars-e-Nizamia* (the highest course in theology) and the number of teachers is 12

Another old *Madrasa*, known as Hussain Baksh Madrasa founded about 1851 by Hussain Baksh, a trader, continues giving religious instruction Altaf Hussain Hali, a famous Urdu poet and a critic, was a student of this school Of the modern *Madrasas* in the vicinity of the Jamia Mosque the *Madrasa Riaz-ul-Uloom* continues giving instruction in Hadis *Madrasa Rahima*, Qasab Pura, is being run under the patronage of Principal *Adarah-i-Shaiaqa* and has prospered since Partition because of the grant-in-aid provided by the Government Other notable *Madrasas* are *Madrasa Siddiquia* Khari Baoli *Madrasa Ashrafia*, Bazar Machhliwalan, *Madrasa Hussinia, Arabia Islamia, Madrasa Doaia*, Sadar Bazar.

Some *Pathshalas* like Som Datta Pathshala, Satya Narain Sanskrit Pathshala (near the Red Fort), Ganga Datta Pathshala,

and Shadi Lal Pathshala etc, have become defunct Of the present *Pathshalas* in Delhi, the following are functioning quite well

Shri Ram Rishi Sanskrit Mahavidyalaya, established in 1910 by Shri Johri Mal prepares students for the examinations leading to the award of *Praveshika Prathama, Purvamadhyama, Uttaramadhyama, Shastri Acharya, Sahitya Ratna* and *Prohitya* Sanskrit is the main subject of study and the institution has been recognised by the Ministry of Education, Government of India, as *Gurukul* since 1965-66

In Mahavir Dal Sanskrit Pathshala (Dariba Kalan) established after Partition by Dina Nath Sarsvik, there are about 30 students Being run by the *Gaur* Brahman Sabha donations are received only from the Brahmans, and education is not free The course is up to Punjab *Shastri*

Vishwanath Sanskrit Institution (*Bela Road, Delhi*) was founded by Narsingh Giri Mahamandleswar in 1958, and is affiliated to the Sanskrit Mahavidyalaya, Varanasi It prepares students for the *Prathma Madhyama, Shastri and Acharya* examinations

Jhandewala Sanskrit Pathshala, started about 40 years ago, conducts the Panjab and Benares *Shastri* courses About 25 students are given free board and lodgings The *Pathshala* is financed by donations

Shri Lal Bahadur Shastri Rashtriya Sanskrit Vidyapith, Shakti Nagar, was established in 1962 by the All Indian Sanskrit Sahitya Sammelan for providing an international Sanskrit institution It is an autonomous body Arrangements for teaching the Vedas Grammer, Philosophy, *Jyotish* and *Puranas* to *Shastri* and *Acharya* students exist in this institution and facilities for teaching physical education and Hindi are also provided as also training courses for the B Ed degree

Vishwa Vidya Pratishthan carries on the propagation of the Sanskrit language Three colleges working under this institution are affiliated to the University of Darbhanga Other Sanskrit institutions include Shri Ram Lal Sanskrit Mahavidyalaya, and Shri Samad Bhadra Sanskrit Mahavidyalaya, Daryaganj

Education For The Handicapped

Quite a number of institutions impart education to the phy cally handicapped in Delhi, and of these the most well-known the Lady Noyce School for the Deaf and Dumb started with oı two girls in November, 1931 by Shri K D Bhattacharya In I cember, 1931 the Delhi Council of Women undertook the r ponsibility for the maintenance of the school In 1936, the De Association for Deaf and Dumb was constituted which took o the school under its care Among those who served this insti tion, Lady Noyce must be mentioned in recognition of whose s vices the institution was named The Viceregal House continu taking interest in this institution right up to Lady Mou batten The school moved to its present premises on 1st Octob 1936 which became possible only due to the anonymous dor who contributed Rs 25,000 The Government of India gave grant of Rs 2,000/- and the New Delhi Municipal Committee pı vided land at a nominal rent Lady Noyce also raised donatio The school was taken up by the Delhi State Government from April 1948 This institution which is now under the Director of Social Welfare, is the first middle school for the deaf a dumb in India, the biggest institution of its kind in the count It has 500 students with separate hostel facilities for boys a girls Special emphasis is laid on teaching in tailoring, weavi carpentry and drawing

The Rashtriya Andh Kanya Maha Vidyalaya, founded 26th November 1915 exclusively for girls, imparts instructions general education up to the sixth standard Instruction in mu and industry along with general education is imparted Stude for music are prepared for the *Sangeet Visharad* examination, industry training is given in sewing, weaving, knitting and cra Students are also prepared for the *Rattan* and *Prabhakar* exar nations of the Punjab University Education is free for all s dents and free hostel accommodation is available

The Institute for the Blind, Panchkuin Road, New De established first in Lahore, has been doing welfare work sı Partition, and undertakes education in the Braille system, a trains students in cane-work, weaving music, etc The sch has also a nursery section in the age-group of 4 to 7 Grants received from the Ministry of Education and the New De Municipal Committee The school provides free education, boa and lodging, and free medical assistance is also provided

The Industrial Home For The Blind. Tughluqabad, was established on 26th February 1944 due to the efforts of the late Dr Mrs Anusuya Basrurker and her husband, Mr U A Basrurker, who had been inspired for welfare work by Charles Dicken's 'History of Travels in America' Due to their co-operative efforts, the Industrial School for the Blind was started and the mental, physical and economic rehabilitation is attempted in this institution If the handicapped comes under "After-care Programme" and works, then 25% of his earnings go to the institution, and in return, he is looked after But if he goes to his village, he is given the necessary equipment and the raw material to practise his vocation or trade, and his products are marketed, and 25% of his earning is taken by the institution and 75% he keeps for himself This institution has 999 boys under training and quite a number in the waiting list In gradual stages various courses of study were started, such as, instruction in nursery, occupational therapy, weaving light engineering, instrumental and vocal music, small-scale industry, and academic education up to the middle standard

Children's Home (Reformatory School, Rajghat) is a government institution designed to reform delinquent children who are sent there under a judicial custody, and are trained to become better citizens

Recently in 1970, the Government School for the Blind Boys was started in Maharani Bagh by Delhi Administration under the Directorate of Social Welfare A training centre for the blind is functioning at Model Town A Vocational Rehabilitation Centre for the physically-handicapped children has been set up in the campus of I T I, Pusa, with the object of assessing the vocational capacity of the physically-handicapped through psychological tests and chalking out a rehabilitation plan for them The Higher Secondary School, Lajpat Bhavan, started special primary classes for the partially deaf children

The institution for the physically-handicapped receive children of 7 years to 14 years of age, the lower age limit of admission for the blind is 5 years, and the upper limit usually is 21 years The admission is open to all castes The total number of boys and girls on roll in all these institutions is on an average of 500 to 600 The institutions provide education through *Bharti* Braille system Higher academic education is not generally encouraged The Government School is only a primary school and the Viranand Andh Kanya Vidyalaya has its own higher secondary school recognised by the Directorate of Education

The following are some of the important voluntary organisations for the physically handicapped All India Federation of the Deaf, New Delhi (1955), Deaf and Dumb Association, Kamla Market, New Delhi (1950), the All India Deaf and Dumb Society, Asaf Ali Road (1956), the All India Sports Council for the Deaf, Connaught Place, New Delhi (1956), and the Deaf and Dumb Sports Club, Jaisingh Road New Delhi (1967)

Adult Literacy And Social Education

The earliest adult literacy centre had been started in Delhi by some teachers and students of St Sephen's College under the guidance of Professor Richardson and Professor Raju in 1937 On 26th January 1939, the Delhi Students' Federation pledged itself to the cause of adult literacy Due to Sir Maurice Gwyer's interest, literacy centres were establishd in backward areas in 1939, and since 1941 literacy week is celebrated every year An adult education association was formed for co-ordinating the activities in Delhi province

The Delhi Municipal Committee set up an education board in 1948 under the direction of Dr Zakir Hussain and the late Shafiq-ur-Rehaman Kidwai and Shri Ranjit M Chetsingh It was intended to establish commuity centres in different wards of the city with a view to organising literacy and cultural campaigns by audo-visual and craft-education programmes during leisure hours The community centres were established in 1948 which were manned by whole-time trained workers and conducted the five phased programmes (1) Literacy campaigns for the illiterate (2) Health recreation and physical education (3) Social and cultural development (4) Craft education (5) Youth organisation for local social service activities The Centre has a library and a radio-room

The New Delhi Municipal Committee organised many night schools for the education of class IV employees The Directorate of Education, Delhi, established also a separate wing for work in the rural areas Education *melas* were organised with exhibitions, film shows and dramas. The scheme of adult education subsequently called social education has been expanding The literacy figures of 1971 have shown that the effort and money expended for the purpose have borne fruit The medium of visual education, such as films, magic lanterns, slides, posters and pictorials have been intensely used by the Social Education Department Talks and lectures with the help of the epidiascope and film strips

have been organised Since 1951, the libraries are being run with the co-operation of the Delhi Public Library Summer vacation social education drives conducted with the help of the student community have rendered useful service in mitigating adult-illiteracy Activities arrange at centres are literacy classes, reading rooms and libraries, book-reviews, talks, discussions, radio programmes, exhibitions, film shows, dramas, folk songs, *mushairahs*, *kavi sammelans, bait bazi pitti bhog*, indoor and outdoor games, outings, slum welfare, civic and sanitation drives At the ladies centres the actvities included sewing, cutting, knittng, embroidery, fancy work, cooking and pottery painting etc

The educational carvan inaugurated by Maulana Abdul Kalam Azad on 1st April, 1950, continued to tour the entire rural areas of Delhi to maintain enthusiasm among the public for the co-operation and community development by holding educational *melas*, cinema shows exhibitions inter-village tournaments and by providing mobile library This carvan comprised a fleet of four vans—a cinema van, two mobile exhibition vans, and a mobile stage Copies of 'Hamara Gaon' and 'Hamara Shahar' were distributed Three to four *melas* are organised every month in villages close to Delhi

The Central School Welfare Board also planned condensed courses for the education of adult women The Delhi Municipal Corporation initiated students into organising literacy drives during vacations The University of Delhi established a Department of Extension lecturers for the general enlightenment of citizens

The library service in rural areas was started in March 1955 and the rural areas of Delhi Shahdara Narela and Mehrauli had fairly well-stocked libraries At Najafgarh a fourth library was started with a mobile service attached to it for feeding the smaller libraries by opening deposit stations in social education centres as well as in schools The Najafgarh library has been equipped with about 40,000 books and about two lakhs of follow-up pamphlets for feeding smaller libraries in schools as well as social education centres The library has established 50 deposit stations

Janta College, Alipur, the first of its type, was started in January 1951 for training potential village teachers, and under the Five Year Plan of education development, a Mobile Janata College for Women has been established, and both these institutions have encouraged largely the spirit of self-confidence and

leadership The Mobile Janta College has so far trained about 800 women The College has a regular course in household management, domestic craft, child-care, and home nursing Three units of the intensified social education scheme are the *melas*, and plays are staged which bring people together from different areas and which make them feel the urgency of education

The Indian Adult Education Association, Indraprastha, is the only natural organisation of adult education which helps the Government to formulate their policy

Cultural, Literary And Scientific Societies

After the disappearance of the Mughal Court, there was little interest in the cultivation of fine arts, but it was only after India's independence that interest in cultural activities was revived due to the national upsurge

The number of clubs, societies and classes that exist in Delhi for music dancing literature painting and every kind of craft is large, and there is considerable enthusiasm for such activities, though the position of the professional artist is not necessarily secure and happy Delhi, being the capital, has an advantage over other cities in this that the Government of India takes a lively interest in some cultural functions for the distinguished visitors from abroad which add to the cultural life It would be impossible to list here the various societies that exist to promote the cultivation of arts but mention must be made here of some representative societies which are formed by people who wish to see some ideas advanced Many local authorities and people from different States co-ordinate and encourage literary and musical societies in their localities The place of a painter and sculpture is not assured but the opportunity of making new buildings has given ample opportunities to architects for new and bold experimentation But in painting and dancing one is struck by variety in mode of style tradition of Mughal miniature painting is continued, modern abstract painting is popular, *Kathak* *Bharatanatyam* and experimentation in western ballet are performed in different quarters of the city

The Sangeet Natak Akademi founded in January 1953 aims at reviving Indian dance, drama and music and organises seminars on them It conducts a national school of drama It brings out a yearly journal, 'Sangeet Natak'

Lalit Kala Akademi set up in August 1954 is an autonomous organisation which promotes the study of painting, sculpture, architecture and implied arts In 1968 the Akademi organised the First Triennale—an exhibition of contemporary international art It has also sponsored national symposiums, and seminars on art The Akademi also published 'Lalit Kala' a bi-annual journal, and 'Contemporary'

The Sahitya Akademi, established in 1954, is a national organisation to work actively for the development of Indian letters, and to set high literary standards to foster and co-ordinate literary activities in all the Indian languages and to promote through them the cultural unity of the country It publishes a quarterly journal Indian literature

The Indian Council for Cultural Relations (Pataudi House, New Delhi) established by the Government of India in 1950 functions as an autonomous body, and strives towards the fostering up of wider knowledge, the appreciation of the culture of India in other countries, and to encouraging the dissemination of knowledge and culture of other countries in India

The National Book Trust, India (Green Park, New Delhi) was founded with a view to publishing or assisting publishers universities, learned societies etc in the publication of large editions at low costs of book in Hindi and other Indian languages, especially the classics

The Bharatiya Vidya Bhavan, established in 1957 (Kasturba Gandhi Marg, New Delhi), aims at the re-integration of Indian culture to suit modern conditions, and the resuscitation of its fundamental values In November 1950, a centre of the Bhavan was founded in Delhi, and since then literary, cultural and historical activities have been carried on Lectures on the exposition of the philosophy of *Gita* provide great attraction to Delhi people It runs a public school, an academy of foreign languages, a college of mass communications, and a Sanskrit Department

The All-India Fine Arts and Crafts Society was founded in 1928 for the encouragement of arts and for stimulating greater public interest in India and abroad in Indian arts and crafts The society conducts exhibitions publishes art magazines and news bulletins, portfolios of pictures, and has collected paintings for its International Gallery of Arts An important category of exhibition is an international contemporary arts exhibition calculated to promote cultural understanding between India and foreign

countries This society helps the artists by arranging the sales of their works, art conference and lectures and has two regular publications of its own, the 'Roop Lekha' and the 'Sang Art News'

The Bharatiya Natya Academy (Theatre Centre, Plot No 34, New Central Market, Connaught Circus, New Delhi) set up in 1950 has built an integral national theatre movement without detriment to the local tradition

The Sahitya Kala Parishad established in 1969 by Delhi Administration aims at the development of Indian literature and the raising of literary standards

The Urdu Anjuman was founded by Hamida Sultana, Khaifi and Kunwar Mohinder Singh Bedi in 1949 But in 1950, the Delhi Branch of the Anjuman-i-Tarraki-i-Urdu (India) was established The main object of the Anjuman is to cultivate among masses a literary taste for Urdu, and to devise such ways and means which popularise the knowledge of Urdu among people The Anjuman holds frequent meetings where poems, short stories and articles are read *Yom-i-Ghalib* is celebrated every year

During the last few years various Hindi organisations such as the Hindi Sahitya Mandal, Shaniwar Samaj and Sahitya have been engaged in literary activities, but the Hindi Sahitya Sammelan, founded in 1945, having about 20 branches in the whole area of Delhi, is the most active, and has propagated the learning of Hindi *Bhasha* and *Sahitya* through symposiums, *kavi sammelans* and publications

Saheli Sabha formed in July 1953, devotes itself to the encouragement of cultural activities such as drama, poetical and literary symposia, doll-shows and exhibitions of crafts and embroidery designs, and organises a fair or *dastkari mela* every year which revives the institution of *Meena Bazar*

Some of the other local bodies functioning in the city are mentioned below

Name	Year of foundation	Activities
1	2	3
1 Gandharva Mahavidyalaya	1938	Cultural
2 Sarswati Samaj Connaught Place .	1944	Musical
3 Uttar Delhi Maharashtra Samaj, Birla Mills	1945	Social & Cultural
4 Delhi Tamil Sangam, Parliament Street	1946	Literary and Cultural
5 The International Cultural Forum, Nai Sarak	1948	Cultural
6 Triveni Kala Sangam 205, Tansen Marg	1950	Dancing and Music
7 Indian Social Institution South Extension Part II	1951	A Social research centre for educational work
8 The United School Organisation 877, East Park Lane	1951	Current affairs
9 The Unity Theatre, P B No 490	1951	English plays
10 Bharatiya Kala Kendra Lytton Road	1952	Cultural
11 Delhi Music Society . .	1952	Musical
12 Veena Theatres, 2, Gopal Bhavan, Ram Nagar	1952	Dramatic
13 Punjab Kala Kendra 1/765, Kashmire Gate.	1952	Promotion of Punjab culture through drama and literature
14 Shivananda Sangeeta Vidyalaya, W E A, Karol Bagh	1952	Training in Karnatic music
15 Kerala Kala Kendra, 3, Jantar Mantar Road	1955	Dancing
16 Children's Little Theatre, 1, Sunehari Bagh Road	1955	Training for children drama
17 Maharashtra Mandal, 25/20, W E A, Karol Bagh	1956	Development of Marathi Literature
18 Bengali Association, 3 Hailey Road	1957	Cultural
19 Max Mueller Bhavan . . .	1957	Advancement of German Language and Culture in India

1	2	3
20 India International Centre, 40, Lodi Estate	1958	International under-standing
21. Indian Peoples Theatre Association, Shankar Market.	1958	Dramatic and Musical.
22 Delhi Natya Kendra, 16/22, W.E A., Karol Bagh	1958	Amateur Dramatic Activities
23 Himalayan Kala Sangam, B128, Sarojini Nagar	1960	Cultural
24 World Council for Cultural Relations Nai Sarak, Delhi	1961	International Co-operation
25 Young Womens Welfare Association .	1963	Social and Political.
26 Bangiya Sanskriti Sangh, R.K. Puram	1964	Promotion of Bengal culture through art and drama.
27 Adhiyan, 57 Kriti Nagar . . .	1967	Dramatic performance in Indian Languages
28 Sangeet Kala Kendra, D II Quarters, Moti Bagh.	1968	Musical.
29 Geetika, Narinder Place, Parliament Street	1969	Drama.
30 The Little Theatre Group, Shankar Market		Dancing and Plays.

Among many scientific societies in the University of Delhi, 'Research Colloquim', a society organised by the Department of Chemistry, Delhi University, which meets every Thursday to discuss current research problems, the Delhi University Botanical Society, the International Society of Plant Morphologists (1951) and the Zoological Society promote the study of scientific societies which conduct research Of the scientific society functioning in Delhi, the following may be particularly mentioned

1 Aeronautical Society of India, Talkatora Road

2 The Association of Indian Geographers, Post Box 644, New Delhi

3. The Entomological Society of India, Indian Agricultural Research Institute New Delhi

4 The Horticultural Society of India, Botany Division, IARI

5. The Indian Astronomical Association, 8, Anand Parbat

6. The Indian Medical Association, Hardinge Bridge.
7. The Indian Phytopathological Society, IARI
8. The Indian Society of Agricultural Statistics, ICAR (Statistical wing) Pusa.
9. The Indian Society of Genetics and Plant Breeding, IARI
10 The Indian Society of Soil Science, Chemical Division, I A R I.
11 The Institution of Telecommunication Engineers
12 International Society of Plant Morphologist, Botany Department, Delhi University
13 The National Institute of Sciences of India, Mathura Road.
14 The Medical Council of India 65 Regal Buildings
15 The Dental Council of India, 9-B, Jindal House, Asaf Ali Road
16 The Indian Society of Anaesthetists, 29 Rajpura Road.
17 The Indian Association of Pathologists, Department of Pathology, A I I M S
18 The Associations of Pathologists and Pharmacologists of India, Department of Pharmacology, Lady Hardinge Medical College.
19 The T B Association of India, 3 Red Cross Road
20 The Delhi Medical Association, Darya Ganj

Cultural, Literary And Scientific Periodicals

The variety of literary, scientific and other periodicals published in different languages in Delhi is so large that probably there is no branch of knowledge which is not covered Reference to some of the more representative of the publications on considerations of their speciality and wider circulation is made here, though for a more detailed information, the reader may consult annual reports of the Registrar of News-papers for India, *Akasvani* (1936) which deals with literary and cultural themes; *Children's World* (1968) and the *Sporting News* (1968) cover wide range of interests Quite a large number of these periodicals are published by authoritative academic bodies which offer research material to specialists for example, *The Chemicals International* (1965) *Indian Journal of Pure Applied Physics* (1963), *The Indian Science Abstracts* (1965), *Journal of Scientific*

and Industrial Research (1942), *The Indian Journal of History of Science* (1966) and the *Indian Educational Review* (1966). The art and cultural bodies, functioning in Delhi, have their own periodicals, such as *Roopa Rekha* (1930)—a bi-annual on arts and crafts, the oldest existing art journal in India published by the Art and Crafts Society *Art News* (also published by Arts and Crafts Society since 1955), an illustrated monthly bulletin of the art activities all over India, spotlights news items from India and abroad The *Lalit Kala's Contemporary* (1962) *Natya* (1958), *Indian Literature* (1957) published by the Sahitya Akademi, *Sangeet Natak* (1965) *by the* Sangeet Natak Akademi and *Pen Friend International* are standard art periodicals which throw light on the theory and practice of art.

The Indian Council for Cultural Relations publishes *Indo-Asian Culture* in English, and *Indo-Iranica* in Persian and English, and the Ministry of Education has been publishing *Cultural Forum* since 1958, a quarterly on contemporary art and thought Quite a large number of privately-owned periodicals are produced with the object of providing to the readers a leisurely entertainment and to this category belongs the *Caravan* (English fortnightly, 1940) which deals with lighter literary and cultural themes, and *Sarita*, a Hindi fortnightly (1954, Quite a number of periodicals are produced at a popular level to cater to the taste of the general public like *Film and Fashion Age* (1966) and *Film Post* (1966) Many periodicals like *Aryodaya* (1959) and *Sandesh* (1963) deal with religious and philosophical themes in Hindi *Saptahik Hindustan* (1950), *Ajkal* (1945), are highly popular weekings, with a wide circulation The most popular periodicals in vogue are *Ajkal* (1942) and *Biswin Sadi* (1937) which deals with literary themes On a popular level containing little of tittle-tattle is *Shama* (1939) The *University News* (1963) produced by the Inter-University Board gives an idea about the university problems and activities all over India College magazines like *New Outlook* and *Steppaman* (1907) reflect students' opinion on literature and art Some of the periodicals published by foreign embassies include *Span*, *American Review*, *Soviet Bhumi*, *German News* etc

Libraries, Museums, Botanical And Zoological Gardens

Libraries

Delhi being the centre of learning for ages has memories of its early libraries the library of Humayun Dara Shikoh's library 1637, and the famous library in Qudsia Gardens where Zaka-Ullah and C F Andrews heed discussions. At present though

denied the resourcefulness of the National Library, Calcutta, and of the Asiatic Society of Bengal library, the resources of Delhi libraries exceed 2½ million volumes

Delhi has many libraries—public, college, university and of other allied educational institutions, of cultural organisations, and of Ministries, there are libraries of societies representing different States Various embassies representing their countries and trying, to popularise their way of life have small and highly informative libraries such as the British Council or the U S I S, scientific organisations, like the National Physical Laboratory and the Directorate General of Health Services, possess volumes of scientific interest One of the factors which is contributory to the multiplication of libraries in Delhi is the continuous interest of various Ministries in putting up their own libraries which have proved a valuable asset for the verification of data or eliciting certain important information For checking up reference, the use of handy libraries has considered of immense benefit to various departments Another factor has been the growth of libraries on academic grounds i e the needs of schools and colleges Under this come libraries in various colleges the university and in educational institutions, and scientific bodies like National Physical Laboratory Another factor for the growth of libraries has been the interest in Indian History and ancient institutions, and under this come the valuable records preserved in the National Archives of India and the rare acquisitions in the Archaeological Survey of India library For cultural progress public libraries have also grown namely, the library of the Indian Council for Cultural Relations, the U S I S library, and the Max Mueller Bhavan For the diffusion of information amongst the masses the Delhi Public Library has made a useful contribution, especially in case of sending mobile libraries in rural areas In some of the libraries the preparation of bibliographies and publication of volumes is undertaken The walled city of Delhi also contains some good public libraries such as Hardinge Municipal Library (near Fountain, Chandni Chowk) Mahavir Jain Library, Marwari Library and Shri Digambar Jain Library in Chandni Chowk

The library of the Archaeological Survey of India, managed by the Central Government and founded in 1902, has a valuable acquisition of about 60,000 volumes including maps and plates From the Indological point of view, this is the most rewarding of Delhi libraries The National Archives, managed by the Ministry of Education and Social Welfare, founded in 1891, is famous for its records like the Parliamentary papers, Gazeteers, Reports

and Private and Public collections The Central Secretariat Library of the Government of India, founded in 1951, and managed by the Ministry of Education, is rich in official reports and publications The library of the Indian Council of World Affairs, Sapru House, Barakhamba Road, New Delhi, founded in 1943, has 65,000 volumes, and about 900 current periodicals are subscribed The literature available deals largely with contemporary history particularly international law, international relations and United Nations, the other well-known libraries are the library of the Malaria Institute of India and the library of the Directorate General of Health Services, which have 75,000 volumes, and 500 currently received periodicals The Indian Agricultural Research Institute contains 1,45,000 volumes, the Indian Council of Agricultural Research has 80,000 volumes, and the library of the Central Board of Irrigation and Power has nearly 55 000 volumes These libraries cover largely the whole specialized branches of science, and also works denoting a layman's approach to scientific problems

The National Buildings Organisation library (1954) has 10 000 books and the library of the Ministry of Works Housing and Supply established in 1948 has a stock of 50 000 volumes The library of the Railway Board has 30,000 volumes and libraries of the Post and Telegraph Directorate, the Directorate of Civil Aviation and the All India Radio have about 40 000 volumes The libraries of the Meteorological Survey have a collection of about 13,000 volumes The Defence library, established in 1900, has 50 000 volumes, and the library of Defence Science Organisation established in 1948, has 35,000 volumes The Air Headquarters and the Technical Reference library have 15,000 volumes The National Physical Laboratory Library started in 1950 has 30,000 volumes and 35,000 special reports The Library of the Indian Standards Institution, established in 1941 has 70 000 volumes in addition to 4 000 reference books The libraries of the Research and Reference Division and the Publications Division of the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting have 15 000 and 14,000 volumes respectively The Central Institute of Education Library has 30,000 volumes The Indian Council for Cultural Relations has a small library mainly collected from the personal collections of Maulana Abul Kalam Azad, and increased by additional literature The British Council, the U S I S and Max Mueller Bhawan have collections of books of general interest

The All India Radio Library, Akashwani Bhawan, New Delhi, founded in 1936, is one the few libraries that has a collection of books on music The Planning Commission library,

Yojna Bhawan, Parliament Street, New Delhi, set up in 1950, has 28,000 volumes (including pamphlets), the library of the Ministry of Labour and Employment, started in 1917, has a collection of over 30,000 volumes In the Ministry of Finance, the libraries of the Department of Revenue and Economic Affairs are developing with 25,000 and 50,000 volumes respectively The library of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry has 80,000 volumes, and the library of the Directorate of Economics and Statistics has 15,000 volumes The library of the Central Statistical Organisation, established in 1951, has about 5,000 volumes The number of books in these libraries would be more than 2 80,000 volumes The library of the Institute of Public Administration, begun about 20 years ago, has a collection of 13,000 volumes on administration On scientific literature, the Delhi libraries have about 70,000 in its section for the *neo-literate*, and 10 000 are children books The Department of Audio-Visual Educational Library, Indraprastha Estate, founded in 1947, offers lending facilities to officers of the Institute The Delhi Public Library, started in 1951, has 30,000 members, and about 1,60,000 volumes on its shelves, it has a mobile van which carries 2,000 books to rural areas The Hardinge Memorial Public Library, Shyama Pd Mukherjee Marg, founded in 1902, is being managed by the Municipal Corporation of Delhi, and has rare books on history as also books of general interest

The libraries of the Supreme Court and the Delhi High Court, provide books on law and justice The Parliament Library, Parliament House, New Delhi, is comprehensive in its range The library of the Ministry of Law, founded in 1934, has about 40,000 volumes.

The Library of Delhi University, founded in 1922, combined with college libraries has volumes over about 5,00,000, one-fourth of which is at the constituent colleges About 9,000 volumes a year are added to the Delhi University, and about 1,350 periodicals are currently received The Rattan Tata Library managed by the Delhi School of Economics has about 25,000 volumes

The Gandhi Memorial Museum and Library, Rajghat, New Delhi, has a rich collection on Gandhian literature. The Nehru Memorial Museum and Library housed in Teen Murti, New Delhi, is now a well-known centre for books on Modern Indian History, and maintains manuscripts of distinguished political leaders. It has about 40,000 books The special feature is the private collection of the Nehru family

There are about 18 centres in the city where Delhi library supplements the stock of the libraries within 800 to 1,000 volumes The All India Information Centre, Tropical Building, Connaught Place, has about 13,950 volumes Other libraries are of the Indian Standard Institution, New Delhi, and the University Grants Commission, Bahadur Shah Zafar Marg, New Delhi, Jawaharlal Nehru University and All India Institute of Medical Sciences etc

Museums

The National Gallery of Modern Art, Jaipur House, New Delhi, houses a representative example of modern Indian pictorial and sculptural art (including illuminated manuscripts) from roughly A D, 1857 to-date, including examples of higher craftsmanship of artistic value which are related to the traditional Indian culture It was inaugurated on March 29, 1954 The trends of modern painting and sculpture are richly represented by various collections of leading artists shown in the gallery It provides, so to speak, a panaromic view of the art world of India, both in painting and sculpture The display has been arranged chronologically with a view to emphasising the evolution of Indian art A small western section has been added where a beginning has been made with the works of Sir Alma Tadema, Jacob Esptein and Alfo Mirano A 'new acquisitions cover' has been started where the only recently required arts are displayed for the convenience of visitors The sculpture 'The Triumph of Labour' by D P Choudhuri was installed on a red stone pedestal. The gallery has an excellent art reference library with 2,500 books.

The Indian War Memorial Museum, set up in 1919, contains exhibits pertaining to the First World War of 1914, war pictures, photographs, publications, stamps, coins and currency notes, ammunition and regimental badges etc.

Since 15th August, 1949, the National Museum had been located in the Darbar Hall and the adjoining corridor and rooms in Rashtrapati Bhavan, New Delhi, but was declared open in its own building on 18th December, 1960 by the then Vice-President Dr S Radhakrishnan The three-stone-hexagon shape building is situated at the junction of Janpath and Rajpath The Museum contains rare manuscripts like the *Tuzuk-i-Jahangiri, Lugat-e-Alamgiri*, bronze images of Nataraja, paintings of the Pahari, Mughal and Deccan schools, it has acquired a sizeable collection of over one lakh art objects These are supplemented each year to make them as comprehensive and representative as possible so as to present a bird's eye view of the rich and varied cultural heritage of India The section on miniature painting is extraordinarily rich The Museum preserves the famous Central Asian Antiquities brought by Sir Aurel Stein The characteristic examples of the major styles, periods and region in stone, clay stucco and bronze provide a glimpse of the Indian sculpture from the 3rd century B C to the 18th century A D The Museum has received a large number of gifts from Prime Minister Nehru, and the Vice-President, Dr S Radhakrishnan It actively participates in exhibitions at home and abroad by way of lending art objects It has an excellent reference library with a comfortable reading room Besides, there are the Anthropological museum of the university of Delhi, the Engineering museum, Science museum, Lady Hardinge Medical College museum and Dolls museum etc

Botanical and Zoological Gardens

The Delhi Zoological Park was included in the Second Five Year Plan, and the Planning Commission approved a sum of Rs 30 to 50 lakhs for it during this period A nursery was started raising planting material so that enough stock of ornamental and shady trees shrubs and animals was available as soon as the earth moving and constructional works were completed An area of about 37 acres adjoining the Purana Qila has been developed as botanical garden The landscape garden on the Japanese Style in an area of about 11 acres was planned A Japanese expert, Dr K Mori, who had been invited by the Government of India

for the development of Japanese gardens at various places in India, visited the site and prepared a plan for its development A detailed account of Zoological garden has been given in the chapter on 'Places of Interest'.

Delhi owes a great deal to the Mughals for the tradition of gardening The Roshanara Gardens have been laid out in the Japanese style. Due to the location of foreign embassies, there is a specialised cultivation of flowers like roses, chrysanthemum, etc. New parks like the Buddha Jayanti Park and Jawaharlal Nehru Park have given a refreshing look to the area The annual rose and flower shows by the National Rose Society and Agri-Horti-Society and YMCA have created interest in flowers Numerous nurseries have sprung up Some of the important nurseries are as follows

The division of Horticulture, Indian Agricultural Research Institute, Pusa Road, New Delhi, specialises in the production of roses and bougain-villaeas. Its collection of roses is over 1,000 and are known throughout the country for their quality They have also released new varieties evolved in I A R I Some of the popular varieties are Delhi Princess, Dr Homi Bhabha, Swati, Ganga and Prema In Bougain-villaea the collection exceeds 80, and the most popular varieties are Thimma, Mahara, Lady Mary Baring, Sonnet and Spring Festival Nurseries in private sector are as follows

1 Ram Gopal Maheswari & Bros. D-70, Defence Colony, New Delhi;

2 Joginder Nursery, Rakabganj Road, New Delhi;

3 Parliament Street Nursery, Parliament Street, New Delhi;

4 Rajouria Nursery, Roshanara Garden, Subzi Mandi, Delhi;

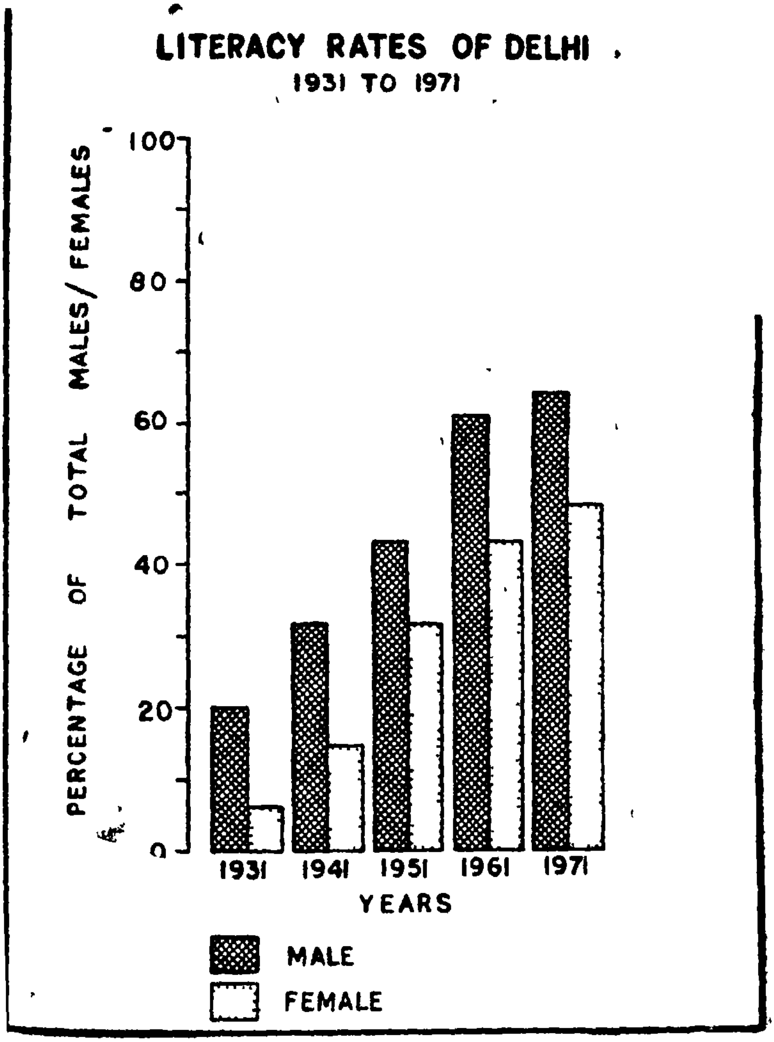
5 Jagdish Nursery, Subzimandi, Delhi;

6 Supreme Nursery, Supreme Court, New Delhi;

7. Saini Nursery, Sujan Singh Park, New Delhi;
8 Masjid Nursery, Sujan Singh Park, New Delhi;
9 Ashoka Nursery, Mehrauli, Delhi;
10 The Rosary Chatterpur, Delhi,
11 D L F, Chatterpur Village, Mehrauli Block,
12 Harsha Farms & Nursery, Chatterpur, Mehrauli Block

Some of the outward manifestations of culture have been dealt with in this chapter, but Delhi culture as a distinct identity has defied description It has taken Delhi centuries to evolve its culture which is on the whole much more masculine and had a certain resilience According to Sir Syed Ahmed Khan, a Dehlite was a man of thousand abilities who had learning, and a passion for reading, who showed friendliness and good manners Innate politeness, graciousness, gentle dignity sensitiveness, respect for one's forbeara, anxiety to avoid unpleasant situations and to compromise with expediency, are associated with the Delhi type The life of these Delhiwala's was a mixture of patience and pastime, of vacancy and thoughtfulness, of idleness and business They laughed, sang, gambled and drank but in the midst of this careless gaiety, they respected themselves and were respected by the men, and the invisible line between liberty and licentiousness was never transgressed by a word or a gesture They had that sort of fitful gaiety which is neither weakened by habit nor deadened by passion but is sought with avidity That world of romance and strength which was unrivalled in many ways has almost passed away, but still the evolution is going on, and is, in fact, the secret of Delhi's perennial vitality In some other Indian cities too, one finds an atmosphere of culture and refinement, but there is no place in this country where the old blends with the new so impressively as in Delhi

APPENDIX I


LITERACY RATES OF DELHI
1931 TO 1971
PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL MALES/ FEMALES
100
80
60
40
20
0
1931
1941
1951
1961
1971
YEARS
MALE
FEMALE

APPENDIX II

Colleges and institutions affiliated to Delhi University; Courses in which Instruction is provided (1972)

College	Year of Establishment	Courses
1	2	3
Men's College :		
1 St Stephen's College	1881	B A (Pass), B A (Hons) Eco , Eng Hist , Mahs , Phil , Sanskrit
		B Sc (Genl) Grp 'A' B Sc (Hons (Chem , Maths , Phy)
		M Sc (Chem , Maths ,Phy , Operational Research)
		M A (Econ , Eng , His., Maths , Operational Research, Phil and Sanskrit)
2 P.G D A V College	1957	B A. (Pass), B A (Hons)(Hindi, Maths, Eco), B Com (Pass), B Com ,(Hons)
Women's College		
3 Indraprastha College for Women	1924	B A (Pass), B A (Hons) Eco Hindi, Hist . Maths , Phil., Psych , Sanskrit, Music, Pol Sc. and Bengali
		M A (Eco , Eng , Hindi, Hist , Maths , Phil , Psych., Bengali, Music and Sanskrit, Operational Research)
4 Miranda House	1948	B A (Pass) B A (Hons) Eco , Eng Hindi, Hist Maths , Music, Phil, Sanskrit Bengali, Socio , and Geog)
		B Sc , (Gen) Grop 'B' B Sc (Hons (Anth , Bot , Chem , Psychs , and Zoology)
		M A (Eco , Eng., Hindi, Bengali Hist Maths , Phil , Sanskrit and Music)
		M Sc (Anth Bot , Chem , Phy., Zoology and Maths)

APPENDIX II—*Contd.*

1	2	3
5 Lady Shri Ram College for Women	1956	B A (Pass), B A (Hons),(Eng , Hindi, Hist , Maths , Phil , Pol Sc., Sanskrit, Psych) M A (Eco , Eng , Hindi, Hist , Phil , Sanskrit, Maths , Pol Sc , Mathematical Stat)
6. Janki Devi Mahavidyalaya	1959	B A (Pass), B A (Hons) (Eng , Hindi, Eco , Hist , Pol Sc , Sanskrit and Phil) B Com (Pass) M.A (Sanskrit, Eco., Hindi, Hist. and Eng)
7 Daulat Ram College	1960	B A (Pass), B A (Hons) (Eco.,Eng., Hindi, Hist Pol , Sc , Sanskrit Music, Socio and Philosophy) M A (Pol ,Sc ,Hist ,Hindi and Sanskrit. B Sc (Gen.) Grp 'B' and Com. (Pass)
8 Modern College for Womens (Defence Colony).	1964	B A (Pass), B A (Hons) (Hindi, Eng. Hist , Pol , Sc , Sanskrit, Maths and Eco) M A (Hindi and Eng)
9 Lakshmibai College	1965	B A (Pass) B A (Hons) (Eco , Sanskrit, Eng , Hindi, Hist , Phil)
10. Kalindi College	1967	B A (Pass), B A (Hons)(Hindi, Hist) B Sc , (Genl.) Group 'B'
11. Maitreyi College (Netaji nagar)	1967	B A (Pass), B A (Hons) (Hindi, Sanskrit, Maths) B Sc (Genl) Group 'B'.
12 Gargi College (Lajpat Nagar).	1967	B A (Pass), B A (Hons) (Hindi, Sanskrit, Pol Sc) B.Sc. (Gen) Group 'B'
13. Mata Sundri College	1967	B A (Pass), B A (Hons.) (Punjabi, Sanskrit, Pol Sc , and Philosophy).
14. Jesus and Mary Collage.	1968	B A (Pass), B.A. (Hons.) (Eng , Eco., Pol Sc , Sociology).

APPENDIX II—*Contd.*

1	2	3
15 Shama Prasad Mukharji Mahila Mahavidyalaya, Tagore Garden	1969	B.A. (Pass)
16. Bharati College	1971	B A (Pass)
Co-Educational Colleges		
17 Hindu College	1899	Pre-Medical, B A (Pass), B A (Hons) (Eco , Hindi, Hist , Maths, Pol Sc , Sanskrit, Socio, Music) B Com (Hons) B Sc , (Genl) Grp 'A', B Sc , (Hons) (Chem , Maths , Phy) M A (Eco , Eng , Hindi, Hist , Maths Mathematical Stat Phil Pol Sc , Sanskrit and Operational Research) M Sc , (Anth , Bot , Chem , Phys Operational Research, Zoo and Maths Math Stats)
18 Rahjas College	1917	Pre-Medical, B A (Pass) B A (Hons) (Eco Eng , Hindi, Hist Maths , Poli, Sc , Sanskrit, Music, Socio) B Com. (Hons) B Sc (Genl) Grp 'A', B Sc , (Hons Chem , Maths , Phy) M A (Eco , Eng , Hist , Maths , M Stat , Pol Sc , Skt , Music, Operational Research) M Sc (Anth , Chem , Maths , Phy Zoo, & Operational Research, Math stats)
19 Delhi College	1924	B A (Pass), B A (Hons.) An , Eco Eng , Hindi, Hist , Maths , Per , Phi , Pol Sc , Psych , Sanskrit, Urdu Bengali) B Com (Hons). B Sc (Genl) Grp 'A' & 'B, pre- Medical B Sc (Hons) (Bot , Chem , Maths, Phy , Zoo)

APPENDIX II—*Contd.*

1	2	3
		M A. (Ar , Eco , Eng , Hindi, Hist., Maths , Per , Phil , Pol Sc , Psyc , Sanskrit, Urdu), M Com M Sc , (Botany, Phy , Maths).
20. Shri Ram College of Commerce.	1926	B A (Hons) (Eco), B Com (Hons) M A (Eco), M Com (Hons)
21 Hans Raj College .	1948	Pre-Medical, B A (Pass), B A (Hons) (Eco ,Eng , Hindi, Hist , Maths and Sanskrit) B Com (Pass), B Com (Hons) B Sc (Genl) Group 'A' and 'B' B Sc. (Hons) (Anth , Bot , Chem , Geo , Maths ,Phy ,Zoology) M A (Eng ,Hindi, Maths Sanskrit, and Hist , Operational Research) M Sc (Maths , Anth Bot , Chem Phy Zoo , and Operational Research, Zoology)
22. Kirori Mal College	1954	Pre Medical, B A (Pass), B A (Hons) Eco , Eng , Hindi, Hist , Maths Pol Sc , Geog , Sanskrit, Socio, Urdu) B Com (Pass) B.Sc (Genl) Grp , 'A' B Sc , (Hons.) (Chem , Maths, Phy) M.A (Eco , Eng , Hindi, Hist Maths. Pol Sc , Sanskrit and Operational Research) M Sc Chem ,Phy., Maths ,Operational Research).
23 S G T B Khalsa College	1951	Pre-Medical, B A (Pass) B A (Hons) (Eco , Eng , Hindi, Hist , Pol Sc Punjabi). B A (Hons), subjects B Com (Pass) B Com (Hons) B S (Genl) Grp 'A' and 'B'. M A (Eco ,Eng., Hist., Hindi, Pol Sc. Maths ,Punjabi) M.Sc. (Botany, Maths).

APPENDIX II—*Contd*

1	2	3
24. Delhi School of Social Work.	1946	M A (Social Work) Ph D
25 Deshbandhu College	1946	B A (Pass), B A (Hons) (Eco, Eng Hist, Maths, Pol Sc, Sanskrit), Punjabi as MIL in B A (Pass) B Com (Hons), Pre-Medcial. B Sc (Hons), Grp 'A' and 'B' B Sc (Hons) Maths
26 Atma Ram Sanatan Dharma College.	1959	B A (Pass), B A (Hons) (Eco, Eng Maths, Pol Sc, Hindi) B Com (Pass), B Com (Hons) B Sc, (Genl) Grp 'A', B Sc (Hons) (Maths, Phy Chem) M A in Hindi
27. Dyal Singh College	1959	B A (Pass), B A (Hons) Hindi, Maths B Com (Hons) Pre-Medical, B Sc, (Genl) Grp 'A' B Sc, (Hons) Maths)
28 Post-Graduate (Evening Classes	1959	M A (Eco, Eng, Hindi, Hist Maths Per, Phil, Pol Sc, Psych, Punjabi Sanskrit, Urdu, M Com) M Sc, (Maths)
29 Sri Venkateswara College	1961	B A (Pass), and B Com. (Pass)
30 Shivaji College	1961	Pre-Medical, B A (Pass), B A (Hons (Pol Sc, Hindi Eng Maths) B Sc (Gen), Grp B Com (Pass) B Com (Hons) 'A' and 'B' and B Sc, (Hons) (Maths)
31 Rajdhani College (Kirti Nagar)	1964	B A (Pass), B A (Hons (Hinc' Eng Eco, Hist, Pol Sc), B Com (Hons) (Phy, Chem, B Sc, (Genl), Grp. 'A' and M A in Hindi
32 Hastinapur College (Moti Bagh)	1964	B A (Pass), B A (Hons) Eng, Hindi
33 Shyam Lajl College	1964	B A (Pass), B A (Hons.) (Eco), B Com (Pass) and B Com. (Hons.) Grp 'A'

APPENDIX II—*Contd*

1	2	3
34 Ram Lal Anand College	1964	B.A (Pass) and B Com (Pass)
35 Bhagat Singh College (Govindpui)	1967	B A (Pass), and B A (Hons) (Eco) Geog), B Com (Pass), B Com (Hons)
36 Swami Sharddhanand College	1967	B.A (Pass), B A (Hons) (Hindi) Pre Medical, B Sc , (Genl) Grp 'A' and 'B', B Com (Pass)
37 Rao Tula Ram College	1970	B A (Pass)
38 (a) School of Correspondence Courses and Continuing Education	1962	B A (Pass), B Com. (Pass) and B.Sc (Genl) Grp 'A'
(b) Teaching Wing of Correspondence Courses	1971	B A (Pass)
Professional Colleges		
39 College of Nursing for (women)	1946	B Sc Nursing (Hons.), M. Nursing.
40 Central Institute of Education	1947	B Ed , M Ed , and Ph D., M.Ed , (Evening)
41 Lady Hardinge Medical College (for women)	1916	M B B S , M D , M S , M Sc , (Anatomy Pharmacology and Physiology), D C.H and D A
42 Lady Irwin College (for women)	1932	B Sc (Home Sc General) B.Sc (Hons) Home Sc , B Ed , M Sc. (Food and Nutrition) M Sc (Rural Community Exten) M Sc (Child Development and Family Relationship)
43 Delhi College of Engineering	1941	B Sc (Civil Elect. and Mech) and M Sc (Civil)
44. V P Chest Institute	1950	D T C D , M Sc M D , Cer in Medical Laboratory, Technology, Ph D. (Bio-Chem and Microbiology)

APPENDIX II--*Contd*

1	2	3
45. Maulana Azad Medical College	1958	M B.B.S , M Sc , (Anatomy, Bio-Chem and Physiology), D.C.H , D A Dip course in Micro Bio and M.Sc , Medical Microbiology
46 School of Planning & Architecture	1959	B Arch
47. Institute of Home Economics	1969	B Sc (Genl) (Hom Sc) and Diploma in Dietetics
48 University Medical College	1971	M B B S
Recognised Institutions and Hospitals		
49. Institute of Economic Growth	1961	Ph D
50 Institute of Nuclear Medicine and Allied Sciences		Diploma in Radiation Medicine
Evening Colleges .		
1 Delhi College .	1958	B A (Pass), B A (Hons) Eng Pol Sc (Hindi) and B Com (Hons)
2 Deshbandhu College	1958	B A (Pass), B A (Hons) Eng Hist , (Pol Sc ,) B Com (Pass) and B Com (Hons)
3 P G D A V College	1958	B.A (Pass), B A (Hons) (Maths Hindi), B.Com (Pass) & B Com.(Hons)
4 Dyal Singh College .	1959	B.A. (Pass) and B A (Hons.) English
5 Hastinapur College	1965	B.A (Pass) & B A (Hons), Eng , Hindi
6 Sham Lal College	1969	B A (Pass) & B Com (Pass)

APPENDIX III

UNIVERSITY OF DELHI

Statement showing the Faculty wise distribution of students on Rolls (As on 1-8-1970)

I Under Graduate Students

Faculty	Regular		Part-time		correspondence courses, non-collegiate (W) & Private		Total
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Arts	7,892	16,254	4,776	217	14,384	7,102	50,625
Mathematics . .	665	391	40				1,096
Medicine	385	791	7	1			1,184
Music . . .	2	71	5	11			89
Science . .	5,818	2,935			334	18	9,105
Social Science	6,374	2,200	369		3,095	148	12,186
Technology	1,267	34	72		.	.	1,373
Total	22,403	22,676	5,269	229	17,183	7,268	75,658

APPENDIX III—*Contd*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
II. Post-Graduate Students							
Arts	550	1 245	266	45	58	289	2,453
Education	86	169	35	4	86	38	418
Law	628	91	886	10	—		1,615
Mathematics	359	204	153	4		11	731
Medicine	240	131	..	..			371
Music	2	22	..	..			24
Science	556	354	16				926
Social Science	951	685	786	12	36	146	2,616
Technology	19	.		..			19
Total	3,391	2,901	2,142	75	180	484	9,173
Grand total of under-graduate & Post-graduate students	25 794	25,577	7,411	304	17,993	7,752	84,831

CHAPTER XVI

MEDICAL & PUBLIC HEALTH

Medical Facilities In Early Times

Historical evidence shows that Ayurveda was the only prevalent and accepted system of medicine during the *Mahabharata* period when Delhi was known as Indraprastha The guiding code for the ayurved had been 'Charak Sanhita' and 'Sushrut Sanhita' These two codes still continue to be the lamp posts for Ayurvedic system of medicine With the coming of Muslims at the close of 12th century marked the introduction of Unani system of medicine all over the country The system prospered during the Mughal period but was confined more or less to the cities The Ayurvedic physicians continued their practice both in the cities and the villages and the common people had great faith in them The British brought with them the Allopathic system of medicine to Delhi specially for their civil and military officers With the passage of time, Allopathic dispensaries and hospitals were opened for public also Nevertheless Delhi continued to have eminent *vaids* and *hakims*

In the early 19th Century, the standard of health was quite low and fever was prominent in and around the city of Delhi due to the defective alignment of the western Yamuna canal and the consequent waterlogging The Government appointed a committee to investigate into the health conditions in 1847 and then the medical officer reported that 75% of the people had the disease of spleen In 1867, the Government of India instituted another inquiry committee Delhi was then a district of the Punjab Government and the medical and public health arrangements were in the charge of a civil surgeon of the Punjab Government The civil surgeon of Delhi reported an unusual number of spleen disease and its close connection with the degree of swampness and lack of drainage With the re-alignment of the canal in 1898, satisfactory health conditions were observed in the local population and spleen index showed downward trend [1]

In 1863 a missionary R R Winter, had started his medical work among the women and children and established a dispensary with a few rooms for in-patients in Chandni Chowk, started classes and opened a class for the training of native women as

[1] *Delhi District Gazetteer*, 1912 pp 54-55

nurses.[1] In 1884, the memorial stone of a hospital for women was laid by the Duchess of Connaught in Chandni Chowk It was opened in 1885 by Lady Dufferin[2] Medical work amongst women continued to increase till it far outgrew the capacity of Chandni Chowk hospital to cope with it and a new larger hospital in time became a necessity A generous gift from Government in the form of adequate land on the Tis Hazari Maidan enabled the Mission to erect a building and in December 1906 its foundation stone was laid by Lady Minto The Chandni Chowk hospital was sold and with the proceeds a new buiding was erected which was opened in January 1909 There were 9,477 out-patients and 1069 in-patients that year[3]

In 1904, the foundation of Victoria Zanana Luis hospital (now Kasturba Hospital) was laid to perpetuate the memory of Queen Victoria The hospital which was built on private subscriptions was opened by Lady Minto in 1906 It had an accommodation for 60 in-patients and it treated 368 in-patients and 6,954 out-patients during 1909[4] The institution was under the control of a committee consisting of the senior civil officers, the civil surgeon etc The hospital was under the immediate charge of a lady superintendent with a suitable staff of assistants, nurses etc

When Delhi was constituted as a separate province in 1912, a separate post of Chief Medical Officer was created for Delhi,[5] who was assisted by six asstt surgeons

In 1914-15, there were 21 hospitals and dispensaries in Delhi out of which seven were State special dispensaries, 12 local fund dispensaries and two private aided dispensaries The total number of indoor and outdoor patients was 1258 and 32820 respectively in the seven State special dispensaries.[6]

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1. *Delhi District Gazetteer*, 1912 pp 81
2. do do 82
3. do. do 214
4. do. do 215
5. *Notes on the Admn of Delhi Province*—1926 p 87
6. —do— p 87—8

Vital Statistics

Vital statistics of Delhi after 1912 were registered separately. For the purpose, Delhi was divided into three circles (i) Delhi Municipal Town (ii) Delhi Notified area and (iii) three rural circles[1] The head of the household as well as the customary sweeper of the house, sanitary jamadar, chaukidars of the villages, etc. were held responsible for getting the correct entries of births and deaths recorded The figures were checked from the returns submitted by vaccinators The defaulters were reprimanded or fined Before 1956, the work relating to registration of births and deaths was being done by the Delhi Administration Thereafter the work was being looked after by the various municipal committees in Delhi with the help of sanitary inspectors/vaccinators in urban areas and chaukidars in rural areas In the rural area the work of registration was being done under the Panchayat Raj Act, 1959, in New Delhi Municipal Committee area by the Health Officer, New Delhi Municipal Committee under the Punjab Municipal Act of 1912 and in the Cantonment area by the Cantonment Executive Officer under the Cantonment Act The Municipal Health Officer, besides, looking after the registration work in the Municipal Corporation area under the Municipal Act, 1956 continued to co-ordinate the work for the Union Territory of Delhi

From January 1 1971 the registration of births and deaths is being done under the provision of the Registration of Births & Deaths Act, 1969 and the Delhi Registration of Births & Deaths Rules 1970, made under it According to the Act, it shall be the duty of the head of the household to register the occurrence of any child births, live or still births, within seven days of occurrence in the nearest registration centre for the purpose Similarly deaths are required to be registered within three days from the date of occurrence In respect of births and deaths in a hospital/health centre/maternity home/nursing home/similar other institutions or in a jail, or in a hostel, etc, it is the responsibility of the heads of the respective institutions to get the events registered within the time prescribed above. In respect of any new-born

[1] *Notes on Admn of Delhi Province*, 1915-16, p 43

child or dead body found deserted in a public place, the headman or other corresponding officer in the case of a village and the officer-in-charge of the local police station elsewhere will have the responsibility to get the same registered

A new feature of the Act is that as soon as the registration of a birth or death has been completed, a certificate containing essential particulars of the event is given free of charge to informants, unlike hitherto Any person who violates the provisions of the Act is punishable with fine which may extend upto rupees fifty

In order to enforce the work of registration of births and deaths in the Union Territory of Delhi on proper lines, the responsibility for implementation has been entrusted to the Delhi Administration

The Director of Health Services as the Chief Registrar, is the executive authority for the purpose The Health Officer, Municipal Corporation of Delhi, the Medical Officer of New Delhi Municipal Committee and the Executive Officer, Delhi Cantonment Board are the additional chief registrars for their respective areas of jurisdiction In urban areas, the Assistant Zonal Health Officers function as registrars The Zonal Health Officer (Rural) of the Municipal Corporation of Delhi has been appointed as the Registrar for rural area and the Block Development Officers are the Additional Registrars The registration in urban area is being done by vaccinators and in rural area by panchayat secretaries At the end of March, 1971 the number of registration centres under the jurisdiction of Municipal Corporation Delhi, was 67

The Director, Bureau of Economics & Statistics, Delhi Administration who is also an Additional Chief Registrar coordinates the work and the Bureau functions as the office of the Chief Registrar of Births & Deaths

Births And Deaths

The following Table indicates the registered number of births

and deaths as also the birth and death rates for the years mentioned below

TABLE 1

Year	No of live births	Birth rate	No of deaths	Death rate
1914	19,387	N A	15,079	37·98
1915	19,969	N A	12,071	28.97
1921	20,297	40.6	15,641	31.2
1931	26,822	[illegible]2.2	15,086	23·7
1941	37,267	[illegible]	19,399	20·9
1951	58,623	33.1	15,934	9·0
1961	78,654	29.3	22,168	8·2
1966	95,642	28.8	25,003	7.5
1967	99,800	28.8	26,225	7.6
1968	95,620	26.8	25,576	7.1
1969	1,01,518	27.0	29,461	7.8
1970	1,00,987	25.8	29,518	7.5
1971	1,05,610*	25.8	30,051	7.4*

*Provisional

From the foregoing Table it can be seen that after 1941 there has been a sharp decline in the death rate and the birth rate has also come down to 25 The fall in the death rate is to a large extent, due to intensive preventive and curative measures carried out and a better standard of living There has been a systematic drive to control epidemics and a large number of people have been vaccinated or inoculated The further increase in the birth rate has been checked by the intensive family planning drive that is being carried out in the Union Territory in recent years

Infant And Maternal Mortality

Infant mortality was considerably high in Delhi in the early decades of this century The main cause for these deaths are pre-

maturity, bronchitis, diarrhoea, dysentry, fevers, convulsion sepsis and respiratory diseases The infant mortality rate has, however, been considerably reduced in the last two decades with the introduction of modern system of midwifery and the rapid implementation of maternity and child welfare services under the plan programmes The following Table gives the number of infant deaths and the infant mortality rate in Delhi for the selected years from 1921 to 1971 .

TABLE 2

Year	No. of infant deaths	Infant mortality rate per thousand
1921	4,409	217.2
1931	4,982	185.7
1941	6,101	162.0
1951	4,926	84.7
1961	5,509	70.8
1966	6,007	62.8
1967	6,388	64.8
1968	5,951	61.1
1969	6,632	65.3
1970	6,381	63.2
1971	5,855*	55.5*

*Provisional

The main causes for maternity deaths in Delhi are anaemia, haemorrhage, eclamsia and difficult labour As in the case of infant mortality, the rate for maternal mortality which was considerably high in the earlier decades has been greatly reduced in the sixties This is mainly due to the increased facilities provided for the pre-natal, natal and post natal treatment in several hospitals, maternity homes and health centres in the Union Territory The maternal mortality rate for the years mentioned below could be seen from the following Table

TABLE 3

Year	Maternal Mortality
1942	5 0
1951	2 2
1961	1 07
1966	0 19
1967	0 49

Diseases Common To The District

The common diseases for which the majority of the patients were treated in hospitals health centres and dispensaries in Delhi are respiratory diseases, fevers, gastro-intestinal infections, diarrhoea, dysentry etc This is largely due to insanitary environmental conditions especially in the walled city, slum areas, unapproved colonies and rural areas Under-nutrition and mal-nutrition also affect the poorer sections of the people The other diseases from which the people generally suffer in Delhi are pneumonia, typhoid, digestive diseases anaemia worms, ulcers, skin diseases and the like The following diseases are notifiable diseases under the Delhi Municipal Corporation Act

1 Cholera
2 Small Pox
3 Plague
4 Chicken Pox
5 Tuberculosis
6 Leprosy
7 Enteric fever
8 Cerebrospinal Meningitis
9 Diptheria
10 Polio-Mylitis

The following Table shows a sharp decline in the number of deaths and the death rate due to different diseases between the period 1930-70

TABLE 4

Registered Deaths and Death Rate From Certain Cases

D Death

R Death Rate per thousand of population

Name of Disease		1930	1940	1950	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967
Cholera	D	8	5	24	22			1		5	2	1
	R	0.02	0.1	0.01	0.01							
Small pox	D	398	152	245	224	207	91	126	36	69	68	110
	R	0.79	0.2	0.1	0.09	0.08	0.03	0.04	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.03
Plague	D											
	R											
Fevers	D	6,879	3,906	2,479	4,670	3,392	4,369	4,163	4,392	4,316	3,899	3,953
	R	13.74	4.3	2.7	1.86	1.26	1.64	1.45	1.48	1.41	1.23	1.22
Dysentry & Diarrhoea	D	545	1,779	1,017	1,270	846	919	832	1,053	813	874	909
	R	1.09	1.9	0.6	0.51	0.31	0.33	0.29	0.35	0.27	0.27	0.28
Respiratory Diseases	D	4,538	6,151	4,445	4,561	4,324	5,067	4,195	4,731	4,586	5,305	4,839
	R	9.06	6.08	2.6	1.81	1.61	1.82	1.46	1.59	1.60	1.68	1.49
Other Cases	D	3,749	5,741	8,259	1,438	[illegible]	1,435	1,347	1,434	1,491	1,495	1,641
	R	7.4	6.4	4.9	5.7	5.00	5.16	4.7	5.04	4.88	4.72	5.06
Total	D	16,117	19,399	18,591	25,140	22,259	25,004	22,790	25,161	24,704	25,003	26,225
	R	32.19	20.9	11.0	10.00	8.28	9.0	7.94	8.49	8.09	7.94	8.00

This Table reveals that the death rate which was as high as 32 19 per thousand has gradually declined to 8 per thousand in 1967.

The important causes of mortality include accidents, natural deaths and various diseases like respiratory diseases, fever, dysentry, diarrhoea, smallpox and cholera Of the total 26225 (8 per 1000) deaths in 1967, 16413 (5 06 per 1000) occurred due to various factors other than the major diseases

Of the diseases causing mortality, respiratory diseases rank the highest 4,839 deaths i e 1 49 per thousand of population occurred due to respiratory diseases in the year 1967 This rate, however, has declined gradually from 9 06 in 1930 to 3 4 in 1947 and further to 1 49 per thousand in 1967

Fevers of various types form another important cause of mortality In the year 1967, 3953 deaths i e, 1 22 per thousand of population occurred due to fevers This rate has, however, declined gradually from 13 74 in 1930 to 4 6 in 1947 and further to 1 22 per thousand in 1967

In the year 1967, 909 deaths i e, 0 28 per thousand of population were caused due to diarrhoea and dysentry The rate fluctuated on the high side during the years 1930 to 1948 (1 09 per thousand of population in 1930) This decline is largely due to improved drinking water supply and medical facilities

Only 242 deaths i e, 0 07 per thousand of population occurred due to tuberculosis in 1968 as against the rate of 0 8 in 1947

Mortality due to smallpox and cholera though rapidly on the decline, still persists In the year 1967, 034 per thousand deaths occurred due to smallpoint and 0003 per thousand occurred due to cholera

History Of Communicable Diseases In The District

Malaria.—The past records reveal that Delhi hal been fairly in grip of malaria, especially in the riveraine belt and the low areas around Najafgarh *jheel*. At one time serious consideration had to be accorded to the defence services stationed in the Red Fort because of the high incidence of malaria in and around Red Fort

The annual malaria morbidity and mortality returns alongwith the death rate of each year are given in the following Tables:

TABLE 5(a)

Year	Total No of cases treated at various hospitals and dispensaries	Total registered deaths from Malaria	Death per 1000 of population
1942	1,55,922	1,149	1 2
1943	1,31,249	952	1 0
1944	1,07,413	1,164	1 0
1945	68,237	788	.8
1946	56,101	507	.5
1947	36,748	272	2
1948	39,793	246	2
1949	19,202	233	.1
1950	18,285	237	.1
1951	11,547	94	.05
1952	34,364	210	.1

TABLE (5b)

Total number of Malaria cases recorded at local hospitals and dispensarises :—(1953-60)

1953	3,134
1954	2,039
1955	2,011
1956	1,566
1957	1,050
1958	908
1959	623
1960	267

TABLE 5(c)

Years	Number of Malaria Cases (Laboratory positive) Urban	Rural	Total
1961	25	15	40
1962	17	166	183
1963	31	30	61
1964	18	1	19
1965	7		7
1966	38	7	45
1967	103	11	114
1968	32	5	37
1969	236	8	244
1970	462	594	1056
1971	1,494	2,358	3852

*The incidence of Malaria was negligible till 1968 (37 laboratory positive cases) as compared to the numbers of cases treated at various hospitals and dispensaries in 1942, which was as high as 1,55,992 From 1969 onwards, however, there is again an increase in the incidence of Malaria

Malaria Eradication Programme

Anti Malaria Operations in urban areas started as early as 1936 when big engineering projects to facilitate smooth drainage were undertaken at enormous costs The Municipal Corporation of Delhi, New Delhi Municipal Committee, Defence Services and the Railways are still continuing the anti-larval measures.

Delhi's civil population was also subjected to the experimentation of D D T after the Second World War and later on was covered by the National Malaria Eradication Programme The malaria control programme was under the technical control of Director, Malaria Institute (Now National Institute of Communicable diseases) till 1958, when, with the creation of Municipal Corporation of Delhi the programme was transferred to this body

Mosquito control measures are confined within the limits of urban areas only The staff maintained for this purpose goes around and treats the cases and does collection of blood and takes suitable action to prevent breeding of mosquitoes Throughout the year, vigil is kept over the control of mosquitoes During monsoon season and from February to April, the work is carried out intensively

National Malaria Eradication Programme.*—With a view to controling malaria in Delhi two units are in operation, (i) Maintenance Unit (ii) Consolidation Unit

Maintenance Unit.—The peripheral area including the urbanised parts of Shahdara and colonies in West Delhi are in the maintenance unit

Consolidation Unit.—The central urban areas are still in the consolidation phase House to house search for fever cases is made with a view to examine their blood slides and detection of positive malaria through the surveillance organisation Approximately five lacs blood slides are collected every year and examined for detection of any positive malaria cases in the laboratory

Tuberculosis

The first T B Control Programme was started is 1933 by Ramakrishna Mission which established a T B Clinic in Paharganj Later on, the Clinic was shifted to Jama Masjid The sixty-eight beds Silver Jubilee Hospital and Municipal T B Clinic on S P Mukherjee Marg (Queens Road) were set up in 1935 and 1938 respectively The Tuberculosis Association of India started New Delhi T B Centre in 1940

The National T B Control Programme in India was conceived in 1950 which provided for detection of unknown T B cases rendering domicillary treatment prevention of T B among contacts and other groups of population and B C G vaccination It was decided to establish a T B Clinic for every 4 to 5 lakhs of population

In March, 1972, the following T B Clinics/Hospitals were functioning in the Union Territory

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**Source* *M C D Year Book* 1969-70 *Page* 117

Municipal T. B Clinics & Hospitals

1 T B Clinic, Moti Nagar
2 T B Clinic, S P Mukherjee Marg
3 T B Clinic, Shadhara
4 T B Clinic, Jhandewalan
5 T B Clinic, Narela
6 T B Clinic, Kilokari (Nehru Nagar)
7 Rajan Babu T B Hospital, Kingsway Camp (1113 beds).

T B Clinics & Hospitals run by Voluntary Bodies

1 T B Clinic, R K Mission (28 observations beds)
2 New Delhi Tuberculosis Centre (15 observation beds)
3 Lala Ram Saroop T B Hospital, Mehrauli (300 beds)

Simultaneously the number of T B beds have also been increased with the result that there are now 1,113 beds in S J T B. Hospital, 306 beds in Mehrauli T B hospital and 43 beds attached to various T B Clinics

Medical treatment and other services are provided to all T B patients free of charge The voluntary efforts in T B control in Delhi are canalised through the Delhi T B Association The Municipal Corporation of Delhi has one mobile X-Ray van for carrying out symptomatic case finding surveys in general hospitals

A fulfledged BCG Team is working among vulnerable population as a component of the programme of prevention against tuberculosis The T B is now not considered as dreadful but as curable disease The number of cases and deaths from this cause are now treated under the head 'Respiratory Diseases' to escape the social stigma attached to T B family While arrangements for early detection and control of the disease and facilities for isolation and treatment are being continuously expanded, mass of the population is being immunized against the disease through B.C.G. Vaccination.

The number of persons tested and susceptible individuals protected by B C G vaccination under B C G vaccination Programme is given as under

Period	No of Persons tested	No of Susceptible individual protected
Upto 1st Five Year Plan (end of 1956)	161,762	3,76,136
Upto 2nd Plan	20,41,714	4,88,826

The following Table reveals that the incidence of deaths from T B which was as high as 938 in 1942 came down to 242 in 1968

TABLE 6

Year	No of cases	No of deaths	Ratio of death per thousand population
1942	1,815	938	0 9
1951	6,416	723	0 4
1961	7,631	590	0 22
1962	8,702	738	0 26
1963	8,686	605	0 21
1964	10,821	487	0 16
1965	11 431	344	0 11
1966	18,948	543	0 17
1967	19,872	333	0 10
1968	20,370	242	0 07

Cholera

Despite intensive immunization programme and stringent control on preparation and sale of articles of food and drink, the Union Territory is not completely free from the incidence of Cholera as shown in the statistics below :

Year	No of cases	No of deaths
1964	41	..
1965	55	5
1966	161	3
1967	154	2
1968	343	15
1969	313	9

Small Pox

The small pox was a terror among the people in the beginning of the present century and used to take a heavy toll The death rate by this disease which was 0 6 per thousand of population in 1943, came down to 0 07 in 1953, 0 359 in 1963 and further to 0 038 in 1968 Similarly the registered cases came down from 1265 in 1943 to 49 in 1951, 508 in 1963 and 70 in 1968 The yearwise statistics is as under

TABLE 7

Year	Regd. cases	Total number of deaths from small pox	Death rate per 1000 population
1943	1,265	624	0·6
1951	49	11	0·01
1961	921	217	0·81
1962	177	44	0·158
1963	508	103	0·359
1964	92	20	0·067
1965	296	57	0·187
1966	474	85	0·27
1967	472	93	0·287
1968	70	13	0·039

Measures to Control Small Pox

Vaccination—The Vaccination Act, 1880, was originally extended only to the portion of the Delhi Municipality including Civil Lines, north of the railway station by Punjab Government Notification No 494 dated the 21st October, 1892, but before rules under the Act were sanctioned, the Act was applied to the whole municipal area by Punjab Government Notification No 232 dated 8th June, 1895 A vaccination season from 1st October to 31st March in each year was prescribed for the municipality by Notification No 60 dated 11th February, 1896 Eventually the Punjab Government by the Punjab Vaccination Law Amendment Act, 1918, made the extension of the Vaccination Act, 1880, to notified area legal This Act was extended to the then Delhi Province by Government of India Notification No 58 dated 26th February, 1918[1]

Control measures in the past were confined to carry out primary vaccinations to all under law and revaccination only to the willing people In spite of the increasing number of vaccinations every year, however, the disease did not show any sign of decline as revaccination was done only to the easily accessible sections leaving a large population unattended

The Smallpox Eradication Pilot project started in 1960 as precursor of National Smallpox Eradication Programme, enabled every member of the family to be included in a family record register and follow up of every case for purposes of vaccination and revaccination The appointment of vaccination inspector and a medical officer over 7-8 vaccinator inspectors resulted in the intensification of efforts and consequently resulted in controlling this disease

However, the incidence of small pox at present is due to the importing of the infection by the floating population mainly construction brick kiln labour and the domestic servants coming from the adjoining states

Plague

Except for three cases with two deaths in 1944 and one registered case with one death in 1946 Delhi had been free from plague till now This is mainly due to the systematic rat destruction by the local bodies by means of trapping, baiting and cynogassing of rat burrows Anti Plague inoculations are also undertaken in the Union Territory to control the disease

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1 *Notes on the Admn of Delhi Province*, 1926

Diptheria

Diptheria had been quite aggressive in its attack over the last 20 years in the Union Territory of Delhi The yearwise statistics is under:—

Year	No of cases	No of deaths
1945	45	8
1951 .	126	30
1961 .	1,658	99
1962	1,348	90
1963	1,517	150
1964	1,294	108
1965	1,100	90
1966	983	93
1967	417	89
1968	409	87

According to the available statistics with the municipal authorities, the incidence prior to 1953 was not high There were 8459 reported cases of diptheria at the Infectious Diseases Hospital and 539 reported deaths during the period 1955-56 The reported cases and deaths were 7900 and 630 respectively during 1961-66 With better facilities for investigation and diagnosis, it has been possible to admit only the established cases of diptheria in the hospital The number of reported cases as well as deaths had come down to 417 and 89 in 1967 and 409 and 87 in 1968 It has

been further observed that the incidence of disease increases during the winter months The seasonal distribution of diseases is reflected in the following Table

Months	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968
January	92	70	88	93	43	50	31	13
February	76	54	83	67	45	49	27	20
March	100	73	97	61	53	69	22	8
April	117	79	77	83	61	67	13	9
May	111	113	108	83	85	66	17	16
June	98	81	64	80	68	55	13	13
July	131	87	77	78	61	52	22	22
August	196	176	203	180	122	136	38	81
September	282	187	261	200	154	184	83	79
October	230	199	205	208	176	129	86	68
November	135	123	157	94	117	86	44	48
December	90	103	97	67	85	40	21	32
Total	1,658	1,318	1,517	1,294	1,100	983	417	409

A careful analysis of the cases admitted in the Infectious Diseases Hospital reveal that 50 per cent of the cases occur in the age group below five years

Anti-diptheria inoculations are being carried out in each area as have been earmarked for increased incidence from study of cases admitted in I D Hospital from different parts of the city A Triple Antigon Campaign was also recently carried out by authorities of the Central Government Health Scheme in collaboration with Municipal Corporation of Delhi in Sabzimandi area Triple-antigon inoculations are also given through maternity and child welfare centres run by the local bodies in Delhi.

Veneral Diseases

No statistics is available with regard to the incidence of these diseases in the capital. However, two V. D. Clinics—one at Jama Masjid and the other at Roshanara Road are run by the Municipal Corporation of Delhi. Another Clinic in Sadar Bazar is being run by the Association of Moral and Social Hygiene. A V. D. department, attached to the Safdarjang Hospital, was started in 1954. It was later upgraded to function as the V. D. Training and Demonstration Centre with the purpose of giving refresher training to medical and para-medical groups who come as nominees of States. The para medical groups include nurses, laboratory assistants and social workers. The figures of the cases obtained from M.C.D. clinics are as under:

Year	Jama Masjid Clinic	Roshanara Road Clinic
1963 . .	5,783	421
1964	6,762	461
1965 . .	4,535	410
1966	3,668	443
1967	3,351	2,050

Leprosy

Leprosy in Delhi is largely confined to beggars. The first leprosy home was started in Delhi by a private organisation in Mehrauli which was later on taken by the Municipal Corporation of Delhi. During the year 1966-67 a new building for this home was opened at Tahirpur at a distance of about 15 kilometers east of Delhi. This home has a hospital with accommodation for 300 patients besides physiotherapy and occupational therapy units, school, space for farming and residential quarters for staff. At present 150 patients are provided free medical care along with free ration and clothing. Facilities for training in agriculture, poultry, tailoring and other small crafts have also been provided. An outpatient department is also maintained at this home.

Another leprosy clinic is also functioning at Jama Masjid.

Three hundred leprosy patients with their families are living in Anand Gram—a leprosy colony set up by the Hind Kusht Nivaran Sangh with financial assistance from the Delhi Administration A plastic surgery unit has also been started The leprosy beggars are kept in Sewa Kutir—a begger home run by the Delhi Administration

Non-affected children of leprosy patients are kept in Children's Home run by the Delhi Administration in Shahdara

Kusht Rogi Sewa Samiti—a voluntary organisation is giving financial help to leprosy patients for rehabilitation purposes

Other Diseases

The diseases include fevers, dysentery, diarrhoea, respiratory diseases etc No statistics have been maintained regarding the incidence of these diseases However it is estimated that better medical facilities had resulted in decline in the death rate from these deseases, from 24 per thousand in 1930 to 3 per thousand in 1967

In short, the communicable diseases have to a large extent, been controlled by the authorities with the result that life expectancy is increasing and the death rate is sharply coming down

Organisation Of The Medical Department

Prior to 1912, Delhi had the usual medical staff consisting of a Civil Surgeon and a few assistant and sub-assistant surgeons assigned to the civil hospital and various municipal and district board dispensaries Government aid and public philanthrophy were both directed to the establishment of more curative institutions With the establishment of the Central Government at Delhi, attention was naturally focussed on the augmentation of the existing health facilities to cater to the growing needs of the capital A hospital for Europeans in Hindu Rao estate and two hospitals for Indians namely Balakram Hospital and Kingsway Camp Isolation Hospital were set up about the same time In 1914 and 1916 Doctor Shroff's Eye Hospital and Lady Hardinge Medical College & Hospital were established, respectively With the increase in the activities, a post of the Chief Medical Officer was created in the year 1914 This officer was charged with the overall responsibility of medical and public health administration in the province In the early twenties a Civil Surgeon was appointed keeping in view the increase in the size of the staff of the Government of India

Owing to the non-existence of preventive health services in other than municipal area and recognising the need to combat the incidence of plague and small-pox epidemics, a small temporary anti-epidemics staff was appointed and placed at the disposal of the Chief Medical Officer with effect from 1st September, 1923 On 1st April, 1927, a post of Asstt Director of Public Health, the designation of which was later on changed to Chief Health Officer of the province, was created In addition to his duties as Medical Officer of Health of New Delhi and Notified Area Committee, Civil Lines, he also took over charge of the public health activities in the rural areas from the immediate control of the Chief Medical Officer

Until late in the forties, the Medical and Public Health Department in Delhi were separate entities under the administrative control of the Chief Medical Officer and the Chief Health Officer, respectively The Chief Medical Officer, in addition to being the Civil Surgeon, Delhi was also responsible for the supervision and management of all hospitals and dispensaries in the province He was assisted by the then Civil Surgeon New Delhi, and the then additional Civil Surgeon Delhi The Chief Health Officer in addition to being the Medical Officer of Health, New Delhi and Notified Area Committee, Civil Lines, was also responsible for the over-all supervision of public health and sanitation of Delhi province He was being assisted by the Assistant Chief Medical Officer With a view to integrate medical and public health services in Delhi, the post of the Director of Health Services was created in November, 1945 The post of the Chief Medical Officer was abolished with effect from 1st July, 1948 and that of the Chief Medical Officer from 23rd December 1949 The Medical and Health Department were thus amalgamated administratively and brought under the unified control of the Director of Health Services

Prior to 1958, preventive health measures were enforced by the following agencies (local bodies) under the technical guidance of the Director of Health Services

1 Delhi Municipal Committee

2 New Delhi Municipal Committee

3 Notified Area Committee, Civil Lines

4 Notified area Committee, Fort

5 Cantonment Board

6 Municipal Committee, Delhi Shahdara
7 N A C, Mehrauli
8 N A C Narela
9 N A C, Najafgarh
10 District Board

With the reorganisation of Delhi Administration and the formation of Municipal Corporation of Delhi in 1958 and subsequent transfer of public hospitals and dispensaries (except Irwin Hospital which was attached to the Maulana Azad Medical College), the complexion of the Directorate of Health Services underwent a major change The post of Director of Health Services was abolished and in lieu thereof a post of Superintendent Medical Services was created to look after the truncated activities of the organisation The Principal of Maulana Azad Medical College (which was established in the same year) was given the additional charge of the post of Medical Superintendent of the Irwin Hospital He was vested with the powers of the Head of the Department for the College and Hospital The Municipal Corporation of Delhi New Delhi Municipal Committee and the Cantonment Board in turn set up their own health organisations to look after the health and medical care in their respective areas With the inception of the family planning organization in the Union Territory of Delhi, the designation of the post was changed from 'Superintendent Medical Services' to 'Superintendent Medical Services & Director Family Planning' in the year 1967 The nomenclature of the post was changed to Director Health Services', in the year 1970

Existing Structure

The Director of Health Services in Delhi has manifold functions Besides being the executive head of the Directorate he also functions as the executive head of the Drugs Control and Family Planning Organisation in the Union Territory, in the latter capacity, he functions as the Drugs Controller and the Director of Family Planning, respectively In his capacity as officer commanding casualty services (Civil Defence) he is also responsible for planning, training of personnel and execution of casualty service He also functions as 'supervising authority' under the Delhi Nursing Homes Registration Act, 1953 (No VI of 1953) From January 1, 1971 the Director of Health Services is also Chief Registrar of the registration of births and deaths in the Union Territory of Delhi

The Director of Health Services is an officer of the supertime grade II of the Central Health Services Apart from the headquarters establishment, the following medical institutions function under his control

1. Hospital for Mental Diseases, Shahdara
2. Dr N C Joshi Memorial Hospital
3. Police Hospital and Dispensaries
4. Dispensaries set up by the Administration
5. Poor House Hospital
6. Central Jail Hospital, Tihar
7. Indian Agricultural Research Institute Dispensary, Pusa, New Delhi
8. Din Dayal Upadhya Hospital

Headquarters

The headquarters of the Directorate mainly comprises of three wings, namely

(a) Administrative-cum-Medical

(b) Family Planning

(c) Drugs Control

In the discharge of his duties and responsibilities, the Director of Health Services is assisted by the Deputy Director of Health Services Deputy Director of Family Planning, Assistant Director of Health Services (Dispensaries Cell), Assistant Drugs Controller (HQ) and the Medical Superintendent, Nursing Homes

The Maulana Azad Medical College which is under the administrative control of Delhi Administration and the two other hospitals of Delhi Administration viz Irwin and Govind Ballabh Pant hospitals, which are attached to the College for imparting practical training to medical students, are under the charge of the Director Principal, Maulana Azad Medical College The Secretary (Medical & Public Health), Delhi Administration is the head of the present set-up of medical organisation

Public Hospitals And Dispensaries

Unlike other States and Union Territories a number of agencies like the Ministry of Health, Family Planning and Urban Development, the Ministry of Labour, the Ministry of Railways, the

Delhi Administration, the Municipal Corporation of Delhi the New Delhi Municipal Committee, the Cantonment Board, autonomous bodies and many other voluntary organisations are providing health facilities to the inhabitants of Delhi The implementation of the National Programmes of Eradication of Malaria, Small-Pox and Filaria has been the exclusive responsibility of the Municipal Corporation of Delhi

Delhi is the biggest centre in northern India for providing modern medical treatment in its various hospitals and people from various neighbouring States flock to Delhi hospitals

Central Government Hospitals And Dispensaries

To cater to the medical needs of the citizens of Delhi and surrounding areas the Central Government runs two general hospitals, the Safdarjang and the Willingdon Hospitals and also operates Central Government Health Scheme in Delhi Brief description of these hospitals and the C G H S is given below

Safdarjang Hospital.—This hospital was set up by American Forces in India during World War II After independence it was handed over to Delhi Administration and functioned as an annexe to Irwin Hospital till 1954 when it was taken over by the Central Government At that time the hospital had only 179 beds with provision only for general medicine, surgery and gynaecology It is located in South Delhi and caters to the urban and rural population in that area All the major specialities such as surgery, medicine, orthopaedics gynaecology, obstetrics, paediatrics dermotology, eye, ENT etc, are available in this hospital During the year 1970-71 the hospital had 1,207 beds all of which are general ward beds There were 110 doctors excluding 65 registrars and 120 house surgeons and 516 nurses in the hospital and the strength of the administrative and other technical staff including Class III and Class IV staff was 1536 in March, 1972 The total number of patients treated in the indoor and outdoor departments of the hospital during the 1968-69 was 49,996 and 6,76,434 respectively as against 14,063 and 2,80,881 respectively in the year 1958

The details of various services rendered by the hospital are as follows:

Sl No	Items	1968—69
1	No of beds	1,142
2	No. of patients discharged	48,621
3	No. of patients admitted (including emergency admissions)	48,996
4	No of patients daycare in hospital (Adult and childern and new borns)	4,44,996
5	Average percentage of bed occupancy	92·2
6	Average length of stay	8·9
7	O P D. attendance new and old	6,76,434
8	No of operations—	
	Major	11,730
	Minor	12,148
9	No of laboratory tests	2,23,409
10	No of X-Rays	1,03,871

Eightyfive post-graduate students were attached to the hospital for post-graduate degrees and diplomas and 120 student nurses were under training in the hospital during the year 1970-71

A sum of Rs 95 13 lakhs was allotted in the Fourth Five Year Plan for the construction of a new O P D block, nurses hostel and staff quarters

Rehabilitation Centre

The hospital also has a rehabilitation centre The aims and objects of the rehabilitation centre are the prevention and care of residual effects of diseases and disabilities and rehabilitation of the handicapped It is also engaged in the production of appliances for the handicapped on a mass scale

Willingdon Hospital

The Government of India took over the Willingdon Hospital and Nursing Home, with effect from 1-1-1954 from New Delhi Municipal Committee The hospital is situated on crossing of Irwin Road, Talkatora Road and Park Street facing the Rashtrapati Bhavan The hospital offers medical aid through out-patient and in-patient departments which include general wards, special wards and nursing home with a total of 610 beds out of which 53 are nursing home beds (February, 1972) The specialist services available in the hospital are medical, surgical E N T eye diseases skin diseases, children diseases, women diseases, obstetrics and gynaecology, physio-therapy, dental department, orthopaedic department and family planning

Emergency service and ambulance service is available round the clock in the hospital The hospital had a staff of 58 doctors, 227 nurses and 870 administrative and other technical staff including class III and IV in March 1972

The details of services rendered by the hospital in 1960 and from 1966 to 1970 are given below

Year	Patients Treated		Lab Tests	X-Rays	Operation performed
	Indoor	Outdoor			
1960 . .	6,493	94,273	2,38,927	33,452	7,599
1966	13,607	4,59,819	4,70,039	53,996	24,452
1967	15,196	5,49,852	5,34,117	67,399	33,576
1968	16,278	6,02,012	5,10,379	75,183	34,983
1969	17,478	6,35,103	5,82,116	73,993	33,567
1970	19,674	6,12,723	7,12,756	80,692	32,578

Thirty three post-graduate students were attached to the hospital for post-graduate degrees and diplomas during 1969-70 Seventy five student nurses were under training in the hospital

during the same year The under-graduate students from the Lady Hardinge Medical College receive male training in the hospital in medicine, surgery and other subjects

A H T Electricity Sub-Station has also been constructed in the hospital with a view to ensuring regular and uninterrupted supply of electric power to the various departments of the hospital

Central Government Health Scheme.—The Central Government has introduced a Central Government health service scheme in Delhi in 1954 Its main object is to provide a comprehensive health cover primarily to Central Government servants Under the Scheme medical treatment is provided through a network of dispensaries and hospitals Arrangements have been made for free hospitalisation and consultation and medicines are also dispensed free of charge Central Government servants covered under the scheme are, however, required to make monthly contributions ranging from 50 paise to Rs 12 depending upon their pay In Delhi, the Scheme has been extended to Central Government pensioners, employees of some of the semi government and autonomous organisations and also to members of the general public in certain selected areas There were 74 dispensaries including seven Ayurvedic, three Homoeopathic and two Mobile dispensaries and a first aid post in Delhi during the year 1971-72 These dispensaries are equipped with polyclinics, paediatrics and specialist facilities

Details of the functioning of C G H S in Delhi

(a) *Dispensary services*

Year	No of beneficiaries	No of dispensaries*	No of medical officers**	Attendence
1968—69	6,53,509	57+6*	411	72,09,141
1969—70	6,91,450	57+7	433	75,18,000
1970—71	7,34,000	61+7	461	76,00,000
1971—72	7,75,000	64+10	494	78,00,000

*Including Ayurvedic and Homoeopathic

**Including 44 specialists

(b) *Laboratory services*

Year	In regional laboratories	Hospitals
1968—69	79,243	1,22,608
1969—70	85,336	1,61,950
1970—71	91,000	20,929

(c) *Hospitalisation services*

	1968—69
Maternity	7,722
General	9,331
T B Cases	389
Cancer	2
Mental	13

(d) *Family Planning services*

Year	Clinic attendance	No of pieces of condones distribution
1968—69	1,54,887	15,92,720
1969—70	1,64,477	18,27,612
1970—71	1,74,067	20,62,504

Medical Facilities Provided By Employees State Insurance Scheme. (Ministry of Labour, Employment & Rehabilitation)

The Employees State Insurance Scheme in Delhi for providing medical benefit to the industrial workers covered under E.S.I. Act, 1948 came into existence in February 1952 when the facilities for medical aid under the Scheme were extended to the insured workers only The benefit under the scheme was extended to the family members of the insured persons to the extent of provision of out-door treatment at its dispensaries only with effect from 1st July, 1959, till 31st March, 1962 while the scheme was being first implemented by Delhi Administration The E.S.I Corporation assumed direct responsibilities for the running of the scheme in Delhi with effect from 1st April, 1962 and extended the facility of full medical care short of hospitalisation It included investigation of diseases, x-ray and laboratory examinations, out-door specialists consultation and treatment and ambulance facilities.

E.S.I. Dispensaries

Comprehensive medical care on the scale mentioned above is provided to the insured persons and their families through the agency of 19 full time and four part-time dispensaries (in February, 1971) established under E S I Scheme in different localities of Delhi.

These dispensaries also provide facilities of ante-natal check-up, domiciliary mid-wife and post-natal care There are four emergency centres where facilities exist for treatment and medical attention of emergency case round the clock These centres are located in New Delhi, Central, West and South Delhi The total number of factories covered under the scheme was 1347 in December, 1970. The total number of insured persons and family units covered by the scheme was 1,16,000 in February, 1971

Diagnostic Centres And Specialist Services

There are five diagnostic centres in order to enable the beneficiaries residing in different localities to avail of the specialist service more conveniently At these five diagnostic centres the services of 20 specialists viz medical, surgical, eye, ENT, radiology, T B gynaecology, skin pathologist, dental and orthopaedic are available The number of patients treated by these dispensaries has gone up from 85,286 in 1962 to 102,829 in 1970 There are ten part time family planning centres in the premises of the dispensaries for the convenience of the beneficiaries.

Hospital Facilities

The following number of beds are reserved in the under-mentioned hospitals, till E S.I hospital at Basaidarapur, New Delhi is commissioned:

(i) *General Beds*

(a) Irwin Hospital	50 beds
(b) T. R. Shah Hospital	30 beds

(ii) *T. B. Beds*

(c) S. J T B Hospital, Kingsway Camp	30 beds
(d) T. B Hospital, Mehrauli	60 beds

Strength Of Staff

The strength of medical and para medical staff employed in 19 full time dispensaries under a Director (Medical) included 100 medical Officers, 37 nurses, 27 lady health visitors, 89 pharmacists, 51 midwives and 55 dressers. The strength of the ministerial and other staff in the dispensaries was 275 including 84 clerks.

Railway Hospitals And Dispensaries

The medical department of the Northern Railway is under the administrative control of Chief Medical Officer assisted by a divisional medical officer and two senior medical officers There are two hospitals and nine health units to cater to the need of about 1 5 lakh emplyees of Northern Railway in Delhi (February 1972) The Northern Railway Central Hospital with 175 bed strength is a headquarter hospital which is functioning as a referal hospital for cases from all over Northern Railway requiring specialised treatment

The following railway hospitals/health units are functioning in Delhi

	Hospitals	*Bed Strength*
1.	N. Railway Central Hospital, Basant Road, New Delhi	175
2.	N Railway Divisional Hospital S P. Mukherjee Marg, Delhi	100

Health Units (dispensaries)

1. O.P.D.,/Central Hospital
2. College Lane Health Unit, Tilak Bridge
3. Lajpat Nagar Health Unit, New Delhi
4. Delhi Kishanganj Health Unit
5. S P Marg Health Unit, Delhi
6. Shakurbasti Health Unit, Delhi
7. Delhi—Shahdara Health Unit
8. Delhi Sarai Rohilla Health Unit
9. Tughlakabad Health Unit

In addition to the above hospitals and health units, a road mobile dispensary is also functioning which covers railway employees residing in Hakikat Nagar, Moti Nagar, Tilak Nagar, Ramesh Nagar, Rajouri Garden, Patel Nagar, Kirti Nagar, Model Town Gupta Colony and Timarpur

The number of railway health and maternity and child welfare centres/sub-centres in Delhi (in February, 1972) were 11 and five respectively.

Types Of Medical Facilities Provided

All types of curative and preventive medical care is rendered to the bonafide railway employees and their families The railway hospitals have a number of clinics viz health, cardiac, diabetic, general medicines, general surgical, paediatric, dermatology, orthopaedic, plastic surgery, E N.T, eye, cardio-thoracic, dental, physiotherapy, gynaecology, ante-natal, child welfare, casuality, radiology, biochemistry and pathology.

Railway hospitals can also refer cases to the Government hospitals for medical facilities which are not available with them All the centrally sponsored national programmes such as N.M E P., N.S.E.P. etc. are fully implemented on the same pattern as followed by the Central Health Departments.

The number of specialists, doctors, nurses was 25, 49, and 82 respectively in February, 1972 with a strength of 403 other class III and IV staff The distribution of doctors, etc amongst the hospitals and health units was as under

Hospital/Health Unit	Specialists	Doctors	Nurses	Other class III & IV staff
1 Central Hospital	19	12	60	217
2 Divisional Hospital	6	19	22	120
3 Health Units		8		66
	25	49	82	403

The divisional organisation is under the charge of a Divisional Medical Officer He is assisted by two Assistant Medical Officers (surgeon and physician) and other specialists in gynaecology, radiology, opthamology, E N T, anaesthesia, dermatology, chest, and six general duty medical officers During 1971, the divisional hospital had 35 beds for surgical patients, 30 for male medical, 20 for female surgical and medical, ten for maternity and the rest for children The facilities provided by the railway hospitals and health units during the years mentioned were as follows

	1961-62	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69	1969-70	1970-71
1. No of Indoor patients treated	4,817	7,616	7,752	7,081	7,577	7,400
2 No of patients treated in OPD	7,35,207	13,54,808	14,72,194	13,87,325	12,86,768	10,87,113
3. No of Lab tests .	35,695	1,15,872	95,639	86,119	1,01,095	97,014
4. No. of X-Rays done .	9,793	13,538	15,776	15,052	12,022	17,489
5. No. of operations performed .	2,028	4,225	3,986	4,017	3,654	3,623

Hospitals And Dispensaries Under The Directorate Of Health Services, Delhi Administration

Hospital For Mental Diseases, Shahdara

The observation ward for mental patients located in Balak Ram Hospital was transferred to the Central Jail, Tihar, New Delhi, alongwith the staff some time during the middle of the year 1959 Thus a mental ward in the Central Jail, Tihar was created as a nucleus of the future Mental Hospital for the Union Territory of Delhi This mental ward was declared to be the Mental Hospital on 26th February, 1964 by then Chief Commissioner, Delhi This was the first step of having some sort of care for mental patients Subsequently, the hospital for mental diseases, Shahdara, was commissioned in September, 1966, with an initial bed strength of 116, which was later raised to 160 In January, 1970, five cottage wards were added to the hospital campus, through philanthropic effects These wards are meant for the use of "paying patients".

A Plan scheme for a new block of buildings with an additional bed strength of 170 patients was designed primarily to accommodate chronic mental patients to be transferred from the Central Jail wards The commissioning of beds in the chronic patients ward was to be done in a phased manner During 1971-72, 65 beds were commissioned, the remaining 105 beds were to be commissioned during 1972-73

The hospital has a fulfledged occupational therapy department to provide vocational training to chronic patients of the hospital to rehabilitate them There is a provision for all modern psychiatric treatments in the hospital including electrical treatments, tranquilisers, anti-depressive and thymoleptic drugs, psychotherapy, occupational and recreational therapies and group therapy All treatments are administered free of charge to the indoor patients All types of psychiatric disorders are encountered, i e, psychosed, neuroses, mental defficiency, epilepsy, psychosimatic and psycho-pathic disorders The hospital is under the charge of Medical Superintendent, Hospital for Mental Diseases, Shahdara

Mental Health Services is also available in the following Government, autonomous and private hospitals (December, 1970):

Name of the Hospital	No of beds
G. B Pant Hospital	34
Willingdon Hospital	50
A I I M S	20
Lady Harding Hospital	2
R. B Seth Jessa Ram Hospital	2
Total	108

Dr. N. C. Joshi Memorial Hospital

The hospital had been founded by the late Dr N C. Joshi in 1930 After his death in September, 1947, the Hospital was run by Dr Joshi Society as a memorial to its founder The hospital was taken over by Delhi Administration with effect from 9th April 1970 in order to provide medical care to local population and to reduce over-crowding in orthopaedic department of the Irwin Hospital In addition to fracture service initially provided in the scheme, it was decided to have a dispensary type O P.D also in the hospital The hospital is at present functioning as a fracture clinic In addition, minor operation cases are also being attended to.

Since the commissioning of the hospital on 4th October 1970, all the aforesaid services are regularly functioning in the hospital and it has achieved a great deal of popularity amongst the inhabitants of the area during the short span of its existence

Police Hospitals

The Police Hospital, Rajpur Road, Delhi was until recently charged primarily with the responsibility of providing medical care to the police personnel of the Delhi Police, besides providing O P D facilities to employees of the Delhi Administration and residents of the localities around and also attending to medico-legal cases With the extension of Central Government Health Scheme to the police personnel from 1st April 1971 the hospital's role is now confined to medico-legal cases and continues to provide O P.D facilities to the employees of the Administration and members of the public The police surgeon is in the overall charge of this hospital The hospital has a bed strength of 50 Besides there is also another 16 bed hospital in New Police Line, Delhi

Din Dayal Upadhyay Hospital, Hari Nagar, West Delhi

This is a part of the scheme, which envisages setting up of two 500 bed hospitals, one in the East and the other in the West part of Delhi As a nucleus to the main project, a 54 bed block complete with O.P D, Laboratories and operation facilities has been constructed in the Hari Nagar area An important feature of the hospital is that it will provide specialists service in the following disciplines, which would be extended to dispensaries:

(i) General Surgery
(ii) Orthopaedic
(iii) Anaesthesia
(iv) E N.T. & Eye
(v) Medicine

The total plan outlay of the scheme is of the order of 100 lakhs This project will be partly completed during the Fourth Five Year Plan and partly spread over to the Fifth Five Year Plan period The bed strength of this Hospital is likely to be raised to 500 during the course of the Plans

Poor House Hospital, Kingsway Camp

This hospital is functioning in the poor house premises for the medical care of the inmates lodged there The institution is functioning under the charge of a medical officer The hospital is provided with 30 beds

Central Jail Hospital

Medical officers and para-medical staff posted in the Central Jail are responsible for the medical care facilities to the inmates, employees and their families The Medical Superintendent, Hospital for Mental Diseases, Shahdara, is the ex-officio Medical Officer Incharge of the Jail Hospital He is assigned with the over-all responsibility for the superintendence of the jail medical and paramedical staff The hospital has a bed strength of 60

I.A.R.I. Dispensary

It is a departmental dispensary The administrative and technical control of the dispensary rests with the Director of Health Services. The medical officer and para-medical staff are borne on the cadre of this Directorate. The dispensary caters to the needs of the employees and graduate students of the institution.

Police Hospital Annexe Dispensaries

Of the two dispensaries, one is located at Parliament Street, Police Station and the other one is at New Police Lines, Kingsway Camp, Delhi The later had shifted to Model Town in September, 1971 and is known as Delhi Administration Dispensary, Model Town.

Setting up of New Dispensaries

Forty-three dispensaries have been set up both by the Delhi Administration and the Delhi Development Authority during the Fourth Five Year Plan Each dispensary will cover a population of 25,000 Priority is assigned to *jhuggi-jhopries* and low income group areas The supervision of dispensaries established by D D A also vests with the Director Health Services These dispensaries, besides doctors are manned by pharmacists, nurses-cum-midwives, lab assistants, dressers etc Laboratory services for clinical tests like urine, blood, stool and sputum are also provided in these dispensaries

Irwin And G. B. Pant Hospitals

These are the two main hospitals run by Delhi Administration These are attached to the Maulana Azad Medical College and are under the direct charge of the Director Principal of the College

Irwin Hospital

This hospital is located in old Delhi It was opened by Lord Willingdon in 1936 with a bed strength of 300 The number of in-patients and out patients treated during the year was 2137 and 73,624 respectively The hospital caters largely to the population of Old Delhi and the areas beyond the Yamuna bridge All the major specialities are provided in this hospital It has attached to it all the special departments required of a modern general hospital *viz*, medical, surgical, Eye, E N T, dental, gynaecology, V D and skin, orthopaedics, x-ray and laboratory, Paediatrics, fracture service and specialist clinics for cancer, facial surgery, glands, psychiatry and Epilepsyete It has a casualty department attached to it which receives casualties all the 24 hours This hospital has also a school of nursing with a sanctioned strength of 167

nurses for training About 25 nurses qualify every year. The hospital had a bed strength of 1103 at the end of 1969-70 There were 209 doctors and 711 nurses in the hospital in June 1971, the strength of administrative and other technical staff including Class III and Class IV staff was 1176. The total number of patients treated in indoor and outdoor departments of the hospital during the year 1968 was 47,456 and 7,39,760 respectively as against 29,746 and 5,89,720 respectively in 1958-59 A statement giving the details of the various services rendered in the hospital during the year 1968-69 is as below

Sl No	Items	1968-69
1	No of beds	1,103
2	No of patients discharged	37,398
3	No of patients admitted	47,456
4	No of patients (daycare) in hospital (Adult and Children and new born)	4,25,920
5	Average Percentage of bed occupancy	107%
6	Average length of stay	9 days
7	O P D attendance (new and old)	3,83,154 3,56,606
8	No of operations—	
	(a) Major	2,265
	(b) Minor	1,795
9	No of emergency admissions	20,663
10	No of Laboratory tests	1,41,977
11	No of X-Rays	1,08,831

A sum of Rs. 91 lakhs had been earmarked during the Fourth Five Year Plan for the development of the hospital. The development plans included mostly the construction programme

G. B. Pant Hospital

The Govind Ballabh Pant Hospital is situated in the campus of Irwin Hospital This hospital is an integral part of the Maulana Azad Medical College. The foundation stone of the hopsital building was laid by the late Shri Jawaharlal Nehru on 31st October, 1961 and the inauguration ceremony was also performed by him on 30th April, 1964 This hospital has been set up primarily for providing higher specialities *viz*, neurology, neuro-Surgery, Cardiology, cardio-vascular-surgery, gastroenterology, Psychiatry There is also a nursing home attached to it It had a bed strength of 258 in 1971 The distribution of beds in the various specialities during 1971 was as under ·

1. Neurology	38
2 Neurosurgery	38
3 Cardiology	38
4 Cardiovascular-Surgery	38
5 Gastroentrology	35
6. Psychiratry	34
7. Nursing Home	29
8 Staff/student	8
Total	258

The details of various services rendered in the hospital are as under

Year	No of indoor patients admitted	No of patients treated in OPD	No of laboratory investigations carried out
During the year of establishment June to Dec., 1964	590	998	1,130
1966-67	2,437	13,332	25,578
1969-70	3,124	36,417	46,261
1970-71	3,158	35,243	45,369

The staff strength of medical staff of the hospital in December 1971 was as follows.

Class I Officers	47
Class II Officers	5
Doctors	42

Health Services Provided By Municipal Corporation Of Delhi

The health services of the Municipal Corporation of Delhi operate under the charge of a Health Officer The area of the corporation has been subordinated into eight zones placed under the charge of Zonal Health Officers who exercise complete control of all health activities in their respective zones and look after environmental sanitation, prevention of food adulteration and maintenance of adequate standard of food hygiene, control of epidemics, management of slaughter houses, maternity and child welfare centres, vital statistics burial and cremation grounds and dispensaries etc

The Corporation is providing diagnostic and treatment facilities in all the systems of medicines *viz* Allopathy, Ayurvedic, Unani and Homoeopathy On the Allopathy side, it has six major hospitals, nine colony hospitals and fourty eight rural/urban health centres, sub-centres and dispensaries The total sanctioned bed strength of these institutions was 2,364 in 1971-72. Apart from these, the Corporation has seven T B clinics, two V.D. clinics, one leprosy clinic at Jama Masjid and one lepers home in Tahirpur, Shahdara Facilities of Indoor treatment are also being provided at two of the T. B clinics, *viz*, at Narela and Kilokari In addition, there are three mobile dispensaries These are utilized for providing medical relief facilities in the rural outlying areas Facilities of treatment through indigenous system of medicines are being provided through a network of fourty-one Ayurvedic, Unani and Homoeopathic dispensaries Facilities of indoor treatment exist in

the Ayurvedic hospital, Ballimaran A new Ayurvedic hospital with 33 beds was also opened in 1972 The following are the medical institutions run by the Corporation·

Major Hospitals	*Beds*
1 Rajan Babu Khysa Hospital, Kingsway Camp (S J Tuberculosis Hospital) . .	1,113
2 Hindu Rao Hospital	306
3 Kasturba Hospital (Victoria Zanana Hospital) . .	175
4 Infectious Diseases Hospital, Kingsway Camp . .	165
5 Smt Girdhari Lal Maternity Hospital . .	97
6 Daya Nand Hospital (Shahdara General Hospital) . .	50
Colony Hospitals	
1 Tilak Nagar Hosptial	47
2 Lajpat Nagar Hospital	47
3 Moti Nagar Hospital	15
4 Malviya Nagar Hospital .	31
5 Kalkaji Colony Hospital .	31
6 Hudson Lines Maternity Hospital	30
7 Balak Ram Hospital, Timarpur .	25
8 Patel Nagar Hospital .	25
9 Civil Hospital, Shahdara	12
Total	2,169

Among the major hospitals, the Hindu Rao Hospital was started as early as 1912 as a convalascing Home for the Europeans At the same time the Isolation Hospital, Kingsway Camp and Balak Ram Hospital were also opened The Isolation Hospital, Kingsway Camp, was formerly a public institution and was

sold to the Delhi Municipal Committee on 1st April, 1937. The Kasturba Hospital (Victoria Zanana Hospital) was founded by a trust in 1905 and was taken over by Municipal Corporation of Delhi in 1960 The colony hospitals were established after the partition of the country The information regarding patients treated by institutions run by the Municipal Corporation of Delhi is given below:

No. of patients treated

Year	Indoor	Outdoor
1960	39,306	20,53,366
1966	59,599	22,63,489
1967	56,606	N A
1969	60,167	22,78,917
1970	67,392	25,57,547

Health Centres And Dispensaries

Rural primary health centres are functioning in Mehrauli, Kanjhawala, Narela, Alipur and Fatehpur Beri. Sub-centres are located in Siraspur, Singhur, Puth Kalan, Burari and Isapur. Four urban health centres are in Defence Colony, W.E.A , Karolbagh, Nimri Municipal Colony and Outram Lines

The Municipal Corporation Allopathic dispensaries are functioning in Rajinder Nagar, Karol Bagh, Town Hall, Patparganj, Jheel Khuranja, Ramesh Nagar, New Tihar, Shakurbasti, Kashmire Gate, Azadpur, Indra Nagar, Goenka Road, Bara Hindu Rao, Sadar Bazar (male) Dispensary, Sadar Bazar (female) Dispensary, Paharganj, Lahori Gate, Lal Kuan, Jama-Masjid, Naraina, Badarpur, Jangpura, Madnapur Khadar, Madangir, Badli, Qutabgarh, Bijwasan, Daulatpur, Nangloi, Karala, Roshanara Road, Bawana, Seelampur, and Andha Mughal.

Facilities of medical relief to the school children are available through two school clinics established at Patel Nagar and Jawaharlal Nehru Marg.

Health Services Provided By N.D.M.C.

The N.D M C. has a hospital with 36 beds (31 reserved for employees and 5 for general public) in Moti Bagh under its jurisdiction. The hospital has in addition to all other necessary equipments, a special X-Ray plant and full dental equipments. Besides the hospital, the N D M C is also running the following dispensaries and medical centres (1969-70)

1. Allopathic dispensaries . . .	9
2. Ayurvedic dispensaries .	3
3. Homeopathic dispensary	1
4 Maternity and Child Welfare Centres	13
5. Family Planning Centres (Family Planing services are also rendered by five Meternity and Child Welfare Centres)	4

All the N D M C schools are covered by the school health-scheme

The number of indoor and outdoor patients treated and other services rendered from 1966 to 1970 is given below —

	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970
1. Indoor patients	826	1,401	1,265	1,312	1,350
2 Outdoor patients	63,762	77,421	77,981	69,078	71,536
3. Lab investigations	6,678	6,340	10,291	10,337	11,540
4. X-Rays taken .	902	1,493	1,890	2,246	2,924
5 Operations performed . .	303	249	219	199	198

Hospital Under Cantonment Board

The Cantonment General Hospital, Delhi Cantt was established in 1935 and has 30 beds (15 for males and 15 for females) The hospital was staffed with three doctors and four nurses in December, 1971, and the strength of other

staff was 24. All sorts of medical facilities are available in the hospital. The information regarding number of indoor and outdoor patients treated by this hospital is given below:

Year	No. of patients treated	
	Indoor	Outdoor
1960	204	68,906
1966 . . .	231	98,047
1967 . .	306	1,03,442
1968	228	98,411
1969 .	191	1,15,000
1970	218	1,27,000

Hospital Run By Statutory Bodies

Apart from the Government agencies, medical facilities in the Union Territory of Delhi are also provided by certain statutory bodies such as the All India Institute of Medical Sciences, Kalavati Saran Children's Hospital and Lady Hardinge Medical College and Hospital.

All India Institute Of Medical Sciences

The All India Institute of Medical Sciences is an autonomous body and was established in 1956 under an Act of Parliament. The hospital started functioning in 1959 In addition to providing teaching facilities in the field of medicine, the Institute runs a hospital also which had a capacity of 750 beds including the private ward beds in March, 1971

The Institute provides all kinds of medical facilities namely, surgical, medical, orthopaedics, paediatrics, gynaecology and obstetrics, E N T, ophthalmology, dermatology and venereology, psychiatry, cardiology, neurology and neuro-surgery. In addition special clinics are also functioning in the Institute. The clinics are: post-natal, infertility, ante-natal, endocrine, chest and bronchitis, urology, well baby gastro-enteriology, proctology, endoerinology, othoptic squint and pleoptics, glaucoma, uvetitis, family planning vertigo, tumour, allergy, pigmentary, follow up (children), child guidance, neuro-surgery, polio, follow up (foot-club), epilepsy, detachment of ratina, radio therapy (general, gynaecological,

and surgical), R.U.A. spleen cases and hearing cases, lens clinics, med opth fundus and audiology. The distribution of 750 beds at this hospital is given under.

Discipline	Total Beds
Medicines	53
Cardiology	35
Endocrine & Metabolic	35
Neurology	20
General Surgery	49
Orthopaedics	36
Thoracic Surgery	35
Neuro-Surgery	20
Urology	18
Plastic Surgery	17
Paediatrics	95
Ophthalmology	50
Otolarynogology	24
Obstertrics	38
Gynaecology	32
Dermatology	24
Psychiatry	20
Radiotherapy	10
Common pool beds	
Paying beds	34
Staff beds	11
Casualty	12
E H S Class III & IV	6
I C U	15
Respiratory	2
Isolation	4
M.S. Pool beds	5
	750

In 1961 the Institute started a rural health service project in the community development block at Ballabhgarh Health services have now been established in this block providing the various services namely, medical care, domiciliary, mid-wifery, ante-natal, post-natal and well baby clinics, speciality clinics health education, school health service and family health advisory service.

Dr Rajendra Prasad Centre for Ophthalmological Sciences is also functioning in the Institute.

The number of in-door patients and uot-door patients has gone up from 7114 and 1,71,689 in 1961-62 to 14,144 and 4,21,540 respectively in 1969-70 The number of major and minor operations performed in the institute have also gone up from 2,603 and 3,069 in 1961-62 to 5,007 and 19,774 respectively in 1969-70

In the year 1972, the Institute had 272 doctors and 356 nurses besides administrative and other technical staff including class III and class IV.

Kalavati Saran Children's Hospital

The hospital was started in the year 1956 out of the donations given by Shri Raghuvir Saran and Shri Raghunandan Saran of Delhi This is an associate hospital of the Lady Hardinge Medical College The management of the hospital vests in a board of administration under the Chairmanship of the Director General of Health Services Apart from the facilities of paediatrics, the hospital also imparts training in paediatrics to the medical students and student nurses of the Lady Hardinge Medical College, public health nursing students of the Lady Reading Health School and the students of the College of Nursing The hospital also provides training facilities for diploma in child health and M D in paediatrics The bed strength of the hospital in the year 1971 was 229 as against 60 in 1956 The beds are distributed over separate neo-natal units, paediatric surgery including orthopaedic units, gastro-intestinal units and respiratory units etc

The hospital also runs the weekly 'well baby and pre-mature baby clinics' and the daily child guidance clinics, etc., alongwith follow-up clinics for discharged patients of cardiac, renal and other diseases The hospital treated 2150 indoor and 95,965 out-door patients in 1961 The number of indoor and out-door patients had gone-up to 8,283 and 97,335 respectively in the year 1969

Lady Hardinge Medical College And Hospital

This institution was started in 1914 and was formally opened in February, 1916, with 80 beds only in the departments of medicine and obstetric and gynaecology The departments of surgery, opthalmology, E N.T and radiology were added by 1922. The statistics of indoor and out-door patients treated in the hospital since 1918 is given below

Year	Indoor	Outdoor
1918	1,238	15,591
1928	3,276	22,491
1938	1,902	71,881
1959	11,245	1,50,951
1965	[illegible],429	1,39,045
1966	11,974	1,31,774
1967	16,263	1,31,652
1968	16,023	1,41,768
1969	16,024	1,55,586
1970	17,008	1,74,116
1971	17,605	1,89,787

The hospital is wholly financed and maintained by the Government of India The management of the institution is looked after by a Board of Management under the chairmanship of the Director General of Health Services The hospital has 590 beds distributed as follows (1970-71)

Casualty	10
Surgical	126
Medical	96
Obstetrics	215
Gynaecology	60
Eye & ENT	55
Psychiatry	2
Special private rooms	5
Resuscitation rooms in operation theatre	3
Additional beds for sick students and nurses	8
Sterilisation (Family Planning)	10
Total	590

There were 159 doctors and 200 nurses in the hospital on 31st December, 1971, while the strength of the administrative and other technical staff including class-III and class-IV was 705

Vallabhbhai Patel Chest Institute

The specialised medical service facilities in Delhi are also provided by the Vallabhbhai Patel Chest Institute under Delhi University The institute was set-up in 1953 and is financed entirely by the Government of India in the Department of Health. It conducts researches of national importance on chest and allied diseases The institute provides hospital facilities and treated 332 indoor and 29,388 out-door patients during the year 1969-70 *

Casuality Services

The objective of instituting casuality services is to administer immediate medical aid in the best possible way to the patients involved in accidents or the sudden victims of the complicated ailments The importance of the casuality services in Delhi was recognised only with the setting up of Irwin Hospital in 1936 with its medical, surgical, ENT, and X-Ray departments The casuality services were however, functioning in an unco-ordinated way until 1964 when in pursuance of the resclution passed at the 11th meeting of Central Council of Health, a centralised casuality service popularly known as 102 service, was started in Delhi. Under this scheme a central control room has been set up at Safdarjang Hospital which is connected by direct lines to casuality departments of five major hospitals of Delhi including Irwin, All India Institute of Medical Sciences, Willingdon, Lady Hardinge and Hindu Rao Hospital This service is rendered by 15 ambulances and provides free round the clock service At present free service is provided only to accidental injuries received in road, rail, fire, flood, industrial and house collapse accidents. Over a hundred calls per day are attended to by the service Many more casualities are taken to the hospitals by accident and flying squads of Delhi Police and private transport The Irwin and Safdarjang hospitals treat the maximum number of casualities each attending to over 100 casualities daily

In the event of an emergency like war, civil defence casuality service scheme is put into operation Under this scheme 155 first aid posts including 145 static and ten mobile posts have been

*Source *Report of Deptt of Health and Family Planning* 1969-70,, *page* 77

earmarked mostly in existing dispensaries and hospitals in different parts of the city 2,800 beds have been earmarked in 15 casualty clearing hospitals and 1,200 beds in base hospitals

Casualties are sorted out at the first aid posts The less serious ones are given treatment and the serious ones are transferred to casualty clearing hospitals after giving first aid In the casualty clearing hospitals, resuscitation and proper surgical treatment is provided and the casualties are later transferred to base hospital for follow up treatment The casualty clearing hospitals have made arrangements for alternate lighting and water supply to which they can switch over in the event of normal supply being disrupted

About 2 000 volunteers are enrolled in the casualty services They are organized into first aid parties on divisional basis and have their own ambulance service and first aid equipment. They render first aid to the casualties at the place of accident and transport serious ones straight to the nearest casualty clearing hospital and less serious ones to the nearby first aid posts

Many voluntary organisations and charitable trusts are rendering very useful work in the field of medical care and relief for the people of Delhi

Indian Red Cross comes on the forefront to extend help of every kind to the victims of natural and unnatural calamities It provides food, clothing and medicines to them on the spot and sends gifts of medicines and food to local hospitals and institutions The society also provides artificial limbs to the disabled Jawans and other poor people and prepares garments for Defence personnel It runs casualty ambulance service at the nominal rate of one rupee per mile It has a mobile van which visits rural areas for medical relief to the villages This society has 11 welfare centres in rural areas It runs a blood bank in Delhi Its health visitors also pay regular visit to various slum areas and give free advice on health and sanitation A dispensary is being run at the office of the Association for the poor The Junior Red Cross with a strength of four lakhs has been rendering useful service for promotion of health discipline and international goodwill The St John Ambulance Association has so far trained over 70,000 people in first aid and home nursing in Delhi.

Health Services In Rural Areas*

Eight primary health centres five under Municipal Corporation of Delhi at Mehrauli, Kanjhwala, Narela, Alipur and Fatehpur Beri and three under Directorate General of Health Services at Najafgarh, Palam, and Ujwa cater to the preventive and curative medical needs of the rural population The oldest centre is at Najafgarh which was started in 1937 Each centre has three to four sub--centres Each centre is required to attend both preventive and curative aspects of diseases in the area, survey of diseases, taking up of sanitary measures, maternity and child care and family planning services in their respective areas

Maternity And Child Services

The history of maternity and child care services in the Union Territory of Delhi starts from 1912 when a team of doctors of Central Government and Health Department of Delhi studied the health of the females in Delhi province It was noticed that mortality rates amongst the childbearing females were considerably higher than the males in the same age group While the mortality rates in males was 21 03, the rates among females was 21 31. The higher rate of mortality among females was due to the absence of trained *dais*, undernourishment of expectant mothers, the system of allotting worst room to the females at the time of delivery, the tradition of universal marriage and the fact that every wife sought to be a mother

As a result of these findings it was decided by 1915 that Delhi should have maternity and child welfare centres with the basic idea that there should be

(a) maternity and child welfare outposts in the labour colonies which abounded in Delhi,

(b) maternity and child welfare centres in urban and rural areas in Delhi,

(c) training centres for qualified *dais* with the provision that village *dais* should be trained and given work in villages where they were acquainted with the conditions of rural life,

(d) maternity centres should have a different basis from maternity hospitals in so far as the centres should recommend cases to maternity hospitals while attending to

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**Source . Report of Directrate General of Health Services* 1969-70 *page* 70

confinement cases That the work of the centre should have larger aspect than those of the hospitals in so far as that they should look after the infants, toddlers, mothers not only from the health point of view but to make them better class citizens of the city They should deal with every aspect of the lives of children and mothers which was not the case with hospitals

The first maternity and child welfare centre was, however, established in Delhi in 1915 Not much progress could be made due to war By 1929, 15 maternity and child welfare centres had been established in Delhi five under Delhi Municipal Committee, three in Civil Lines Area Committee and seven in New Delhi. Within a year the number was doubled

The Lady Chelmsford League Delhi Health and Baby Week Fund and Philanthropists like Banwari Lal and Ram Lal Lohia had taken keen interest in the establishment of these centres The training of *dais* started in Lady Reading School and Victoria Zanana Hospital

These efforts reduced the death rate among women considerably In 1930 not a single case of death was recorded from confinement, where it took place under the supervision of centres and its trained *dais*

In 1940, the Delhi Maternity Services Coordination Committee was set up to see that the cases referred by the centres to the hospitals were well treated and referred back to the centres It was also decided to introduce the card system and booking so that all women irrespective of status may be served well Their case history was also maintained

In the same year the Punjab Nurses Registration Act was extended to Delhi Initially it was decided that indigenous *dais* may also be given certificates under the system However, as time passed, old *dais* gave up their work and then it was decided that all *dais* dealing with confinements should have certificates of training The Government of India have now stopped the training of indigenous *dais* and switched on to the training of auxuliary nurse-*cum*-midwives

In the year 1971, the Municipal Corporation of Delhi was running 67 maternity and child welfare centres, five maternity homes with 66 beds and 32 sub centres The New Delhi Municipal Committee is running 13 centres

Blood Banks

In Delhi blood banks exist in the following hospitals:

1. All India Institute of Medical Sciences.
2. Safdarjang Hospital.
3. Irwin Hospital.
4. Lady Hardinge Hospital
5. Willingdon Hospital
6. Hindu Rao Hospital

In addition the Indian Red Cross Society is also having a blood bank in Jorbagh

Family Planning Programme

The family planning programme has assumed great importance in recent years due to the very large increase in the growth of population During the last seven decades the population of the capital swelled by leaps and bounds and registered a tenfold increase In Delhi the programme is being implemented by different agencies including Central Government Health Scheme Clinics, Municipal Corporation of Delhi New Delhi Municipal Committee, Cantonment Board, autonomous bodies and voluntary organisations etc

Directorate of Family Planning, Delhi Administration

With a view to coordinate the work of various agencies functioning in the field of family planning, the Directorate of Family Planning was set up in October, 1966 This Directorate which is actually the State Family Planning Bureau is headed by a Dy Director (Family Planning) who is also the State Planning Officer for Delhi The Directorate is responsible for the effective implementation of the family plannnig programme, coordination of the activities of different agencies, distribution of areas to centres, organisation of publicity and mass media programme, administration of grants-in-aid to the local bodies and voluntary organisations, collection and compilation of statistical data and administration of the Regional Planning Training Centre

Apex Committee And The Grants Committee

The basic policies for the implementation of the programme are formulated by an apex committee with the Chief Executive Councillor as its chairman The grants-in-aid to the local bodies and voluntary organisations are administered through the Grants Committee under the chairmanship of Secretary, Medical and Public Health of Delhi Administration

The family planning field operational work in Delhi was re-organised in 1969, with the allotment of specific number of family planning centres for guidance and supervision to the five family planning officers of the Directorate of Family Planning, Municipal Corporation of Delhi and the C G H S. These officers are responsible to supervise the work of 65 family welfare centres and 8 Post Partum Units, evaluation of the programme training of medical and para-medical personnel and effective publicity and educational programme.

Statistical And Evaluation Cell

The statistical section collects, compiles and analyses the data of work done by family welfare planning centre. The field staff *i e* family planning officers and publicity officers are regularly kept informed about the progress of each and every centre in order to provide necessary assistance and guidance to the centres whose performance is not up-to the mark

Welfare Planning Centres

The whole family planning programme in Delhi is being implemented through 65 family welfare plannnig centres, 8 Post Partum Units, one mobile I U C D unit and four mobile sterilisation clinics Appendix III contains the list of family welfare planning centres in Delhi The agency-wise break up of the centres and units is given under

Agency	F W P Centres	F W P Sub-centres	post-partum units	Mobile I U C D	Sterilisation clinics	Publicity Unit
1 Director General of Health Services	4	7	1		1	
2 Central Government Health Scheme	14					
3 Delhi Administration	2	..	1	.	.	1
4 M C D . .	31	34	2			1
5 N D M C	4	.	.		.	
6. Cantonment Board	1	—	—	.	..	
7 Autonomous bodies	1	.	2		2	
8 Voluntary Organisations	8		2	1	1	2
TOTAL	65	41	8	1	4	4

Vasectomy & Tubectomy

Facilities have been provided in all bigger medical institutions in the Union Territory for conducting vasectomy and tubectomy operations In order to popularise these surgical methods and family planning, the services of private medical practitioners are also utilised on payment of a subsidy of Rs 35 per case for vasectomy and Rs 45 for tubectomy operation. Vasectomy camps are organised in villages, J J. colonies,slum areas, primary health centres, etc Medical advice on the methods of family planning is also given to married persons who require such advice Clients/patients are given Rs. 35 for Vasectomy, Rs. 70 for tubectomy and Rs 8 for I U D insertions as incentive in lower socio-economic group of people

Mass Communication And Education Publicity

Intensive propaganda through lectures, film shows, exhibitions, publicity literature posters etc is done throughout the Union Territory to educate the public in respect of family planning. Special efforts are being made to publicise family planning in low awareness areas of Delhi including rural areas, jhuggi, jhonpri dwellers, construction labour, industrial workers, daily wage earners like rickshaw pullers, coolies etc

Regional Family Planning Training Centre

To equip the medical and para medical personnel about the different aspects of the family planning programme effectively, a family planning training centre was established in 1967 The number of different categories of personnel trained in the Regional Family Planning Training Centre since its inception upto 30th June, 1970, is as follows —

Category	Regular Course	Short Course	Seminar/ workshop
Medical Officers	76	55	54
Extension Educators	76	42	48
F P Field workers	96	107	40
Lady Health Visitors	54	.	
Store Keeper-*cum*-clerks	72		

Achievements

The following Table indicates the progress of family planning programme in the Union Territory

Year	I.U.C.D inserted	Sterilisations performed	C.C. Users
1965—66	21,275	N.A.	N.A.
1966—67	12,758	4,730	15,903
1967—68	5,184	15,002	33,036
1968—69	6,701	8,865	47,926
1969—70	7,277	8,226	61,609
1970—71	8,460	7,759	91,772

Financial Aspects

Expenditure on family planning programme in the Union Territory has increased from 2.35 lakhs incurred in 1966-67 to 34.19 lakhs in 1970-71. The share of grants in aid to local bodies and Voluntary Organisations amounted to 82% of the total expenditure during 1970-71. The information regarding actual expenditure from 1966-67 to 1970-71 is given below

Year	Actual expenditure on Family Planning (Rs in lakhs)
1966—67	2·35
1967—68	14·63
1968—69	25·16
1969—70	35·48
1970—71	34·19

Private Hospitals & Nursing Homes

Among the private hospitals, the St. Stephens hospital and Dr. Shroff's Eye Hospital are the oldest.

St. Stephen's Hospital

The St Stephens hospital is the oldest women's hospital and had its beginning as early as 1867 when two non-medical British Missionaries started a medical aid service for women on the bank of the Yamuna and later in the very heart of the city in Chandni Chowk From these small beginnings grew St Stephen's hospital, the first hospital for women which was opened in 1885 in Chandni Chowk The hospital was shifted to its present site in 1908 At present it is a general hospital for women and children with 170 beds and 70 infant cots (1971) with a Nurses Training School attached to it since 1908 The staff strength in December 1971, was 13 doctors, 12 sisters and 40 staff nurses, and para-medical workers, besides a team of 10 honorary consultants

The expansion programme of the hospital, likely to be completed by 1973 which will provide 175 additional beds The hospital runs clinics in gynaecology, ante-natal, post-natal, family planning, fertility, paediatrics and new born, medical, surgical, ophthalmology and E N T

The information regarding services rendered by the hospital from 1960 to 1971 is given below

	1960	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971
No of patients treated in O P D	47,788	50,632	51,879	54,037	60,314	60,731	64,760
No of In-patients treated	8,845	10,600	10,995	11,031	12,250	12,806	13,083
No of confinement cases	2,964	3,694	3,733	3,852	4,123	4,361	5,248
No of operations performed	2,859	3,176	3,449	3,509	4,192	4,417	4,865

Dr. Shroff's Charity Eye Hospital

This hospital was started by late Dr S P Shroff, in July, 1914 in Fatehpuri. A trust for running the hospital was established in the year 1922 and the present building in Daryaganj was constructed in 1926 The hospital had a bed strength of

184 in December, 1971, with 13 doctors and six nurses. Medical and surgical facilities are provided in the hospital including advanced operations such as detachment of retina and corneal grafting. During the year 1967, the hospital started E N T department. The information pertaining to services rendered by the hospital from 1960 to 1970 is given below:

	1960	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970
No of Patients in O.P D . .	88,991	58,625	62,777	65,303	61,573	63,599
No of In-patients	2,228	1,387	1,757	2,079	2,140	2,190
No of major operations performed	2,259	1,254	1,720	2,129	1,988	2,074
No of minor operations performed	4,116	3,463	4 683	5,222	4,159	4,406

A number of private hospitals have come up in the post-independence era. Most of these have nursing homes attached to them while many of them are general hospitals. Some render specialised services. The Allopathic private hospitals functioning in Delhi include

S No	Name of Hospital	Year of Estt	No of beds (1970)
1	Sant Parmanand Blind Relief Missio	933	96
2	Ram Sarup T B Hospital Mehrauli .	1953	306
3	Holy Family Hospital, Okhla	1956	1
4	Sir Ganga Ram Hospital	1954	1
5	Model Eye Hospital	1951	65
6	Tirath Ram Shah Hospital	1955	123
7	Delhi Maternity Hospital	1959	106
8	R B Jassa Ram Hospital		41
9	Sunder Lal Jain Hospital		6
10	R K Mission T B Clinic		28
11	New Delhi T B Centre		15

Some of the other private hospitals functioning in Delhi are Des Raj Maternity hospital, Dr Oberoi's Sanjiwan hospital, Dr Sharma's hospital, Jeewan hospital, Sahi hospital, Sham Lal Eye Hospital, Navjeevan hospital, Hem Raj Tandon's hospital, City

clinic, Nursing Home, Dr Sen Nursing Home, Dr. Sethi Maternity Nursing Home & Surgery hospital and Dr Tandon's Children hospital

Sant Parmanand Blind Relief Mission

Sant Parmanand Blind Relief Mission started in 1933 under the inspirations of Sant Parmanand Maharaj of Bhagwat Bhakti Ashram, Rewari, is running three hospitals in Delhi The chief aim of the Mission is eradication of blindness Eye operation such as cataract, glaucoma, trichiasis, entropion, sac and squint etc, are performed in these hospitals The number of indoor and outdoor patients treated by these hospitals in 1969-70 was 91,940 and 1,25,209 respectively

Lala Ram Sarup T. B. Hospital (Mehrauli)

Lala Ram Sarup Khanna, a Delhi philanthropist offered his estate called 'Moti Bhavan' in Mehrauli and gave cash donation of Rs 25,000 for establishing a T.B institution The cost of construction and equipment at the initial stage amounting to Rs 6,35,000 was met by the Government of India and this hospital started functioning in 1953 with a bed strength of 100. The T B Association expanded the hospital which has now 306 beds with diagnosic, surgical, laboratory, teaching and training facilities The hospital is a teaching and training centre for students of M D, D T C D and D C H. The post graduate and under graduate students of the All India Institute of Medical Sciences and pupil nurses of the College of Nursing, Safdarjang Hospital, Lady Hardinge Medical College and Holy Family Hospital get their practical and clinical training in this hospital The hospital is staffed with eight doctors and 40 employees in nursing staff The number of patients treated in the hospital is given as under

Year	No of patients treated	
	Outdoor	Indoor
1966	43,681	1,333
1967	44,602	1,367
1968	11,517	1,366
1969	41,736	1,353
1970	43,423	1,386

Holy Family Hospital

This is a private non-profit general hospital sponsored by the Medical Mission Sisters and open to men, women and children. It is operated by a registered society and was first opened to public in January, 1956 Facilities available in the hospital are general medicine and surgery, obstetrics/gyneacology paediatrics, anesthesia, pathology, physiotherapy, pharmacy and diagnostic and X-Ray Other specialities such as orthopedics, ear, nose and throat, eye, plastic surgery, neuro-surgery, neurology, urology, thoracic surgery etc are also available Rural clinics are set up by the hospital in two centres which serve two villages The following Table gives the statistical information regarding services rendered and the number of doctors and nurses on the strength of the hospital from 1966 to 1970.

TABLE

Statistical data from 1966 *to* 1970

	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970
In-Patients treated .	6,562	7,015	7,310	7,211	7,836
Out-Patients treated	55,382	61,562	72,792	73,757	71,184
Lab tests	40,261	68,889	52,437	60,092	72 673
X-Ray . . .	4,780	6,032	6,473	6,531	8,032
Operations .	2,910	3,045	3,283	2,203	2,697
Deliveries .	1,409	1,651	1,691	1,443	1,615
Physiotherapy				10,382	12,883
No of Doctors .	14	16	20	20	24
No of Nurses (Female)	12	42	54	77	98

Sir Ganga Ram Hospital

Sir Ganga Ram hospital started functioning in Delhi in April, 1954 The bed strength of the hospital was 150 in December, 1971 and facilities were available in medical surgical, eye, ENT,

gynaecology and obstertrics, orthopaedic, cardiology, physic theraphy, dental, paediatric, plastic surgery, neuro-surgery, psychiatric, skin and family planning departments The information regarding patients treated during 1960 and from 1966 to 1970 by this hospital is given below

Year	Patients treated		Laboratory Tests	Operations performed	
	Outdoor	Indoor		Major	Minor
1960	55,000	2,000	26,700	1,892	2,120
1966	61,000	4,500	48,680	2,445	2,260
1967	62,500	4,700	52,640	2,765	3,100
1968	66,000	4,900	54,702	3,270	3,460
1969	70,000	5,150	55,660	3,560	4,155
1970	72,000	5,350	57,350	3,640	4,220

Model Eye Hospital

The hospital was established in 1954 by the All India Blind Relief Society and has a bed strength of 80 (1972) The hospital provides treatment for eyes and E N T The number of patients treated in O P D during 1970 was 32,937 as against 30,915 in 1966

Tibbia College

The Tibbia College combines Ayurvedic, Unani and Allopathic systems of medicines and has a bed strength of 75 *viz* 12 Ayurvedic, 12 Unani, and 51 Allopathic.

Mool Chand Kharaiti Ram Hospital

Shri Mool Chand Kharaiti Ram Trust was created by the Late Shri Kharaiti Ram in 1928 with a donation of Rs 40 lakhs for imparting education in Sanskrit and improving Ayurvedic system of medicine The trustees opened dispensaries and an indoor hospital in Lahore (now in Pakistan). After partition, the trust

started a dispensary in Karol Bagh in the year 1951 and a hospital at Lajpat Nagar was built in 1957 which started functioning in 1958. The present bed strength is 150 (Feb 72) The undermentioned facilities are available in the hospital

Ayurvedic Wing	Surgical Wing
1. Kaya Chikitsa	1 General Surgery
2 Panch Karma	2 Paediatrics
3 Dhara Kalpa	3 Gynaecology
4 Shalakya (Diseases of eyes)	4 Midwifery
5. Kaumarbharaytha (children & expectant mothers diseases)	5 Eye
	6 E N T
6. Treatment of Surgical Cases by Ayurvedic Medicines	7 Pathology
	8 Cardio-Thoracic Clinic
7. Kaya Kalpa	9 Plastic Surgery
	10 Radiology
	11 Speech Therapy
	12 Orthopaedic Surgery
	13 Neuro Surgery
	14 Family Planning Unit
	15. Physio-Therapy
	16 Psychiatric
	17 Gastro Entrology

The information regarding number of patients treated by this hospital is given as under —

Year	Ayurvedic Wing		Surgical Wing	Indoor patients	
	Lajpat Nagar Hospital	Rohtak Road Dispensary	Lajpat Nagar Hospital	Ayurvedic	Surgical
1967—68	1,20,685	78,786	814	685	115
1968—69	2,34,166	71,045	18,781	670	894
1969—70	1,79,187	68,836	27,866	900	1,016
1970—71	2,37,266	63,688	25,308	585	1,172

The number of operations performed in the hospital increased from 51 in 1967-68 to 1,651 in 1970-71

Hamdard Research Clinic & Nursing Home

The Hamdard Research Clinic and Nursing Home is the leading institution of the Unani system of medicine with bed strength of 66 (in April, 1972)

Nehru Homeopathic Medical College & Hospital

The Nehru Homeopathic Medical College & Hospital is run by Dr Yudhvir Singh Homeopathic Charitable Trust The trust is running seven Homeopathic dispensaries also in the Union Territory of Delhi

Nursing Home

With the enforcement of Delhi Nursing Home Registration Act, 1953 on 22nd April, 1953, 15 nursing homes with bed capacity of 1002 were registered in private capacity In the year 1971-72, there were 66 registered nursing homes with the capacity of 1766 beds Many of these are attached to the private hospitals described earlier

Medical Practitioners In Delhi

No information is available regarding the exact number of general practitioners practising various systems of medicines in the Union Territory The census of 1961 gives the following number of medical practitioners and other para medical personnel

Category	Number
1. Physicians and Surgeons Allopathic	1,786
2 Physicians Ayurvedic	849
3 Physicians Homeopathic	218
4 Dentists	222
5 Physician and Surgeons n e.c & others	1,447
6 Nurses	2,067
7. Midwives and Health-visitors	493

According to the report 'Self Employed Persons' in Delhi published by the Directorate of Employment and Training, Delhi Administration, the total number of Allopathic doctors enrolled with the Delhi Medical Association as on 31st March 1965 was 850.

In addition, there were about 250 registered medical practitioners of modern medicines practising in Delhi who were not enrolled with the association. Besides 2,153 Ayurvedic and about 500 Unani *Hakims* and *Vaids* and 288 Homeopathic physicians and 257 Dentists were registered with various councils in 1965 The number of unqualified persons practising in Delhi as on 31st March 1965 was estimated as about 2,000 According to the above report out of 2000, pharmacists/compounders residing in the Union Territory, 500 were carrying on independent business in Delhi The number of nurses and midwives carrying on independent practice was about 1,000 Thus, total number of persons working independently in the medical profession as on 31st March, 1965 was about 7,700 as against 5,000 in 1960

In 1971 the number of medical personnel registered with various councils and boards was as under —

1	Doctors registered with Delhi Medical Association (Dec 1971)	1,020
2	Homoeopathic Physicians registered with Board of Homeopathic Association (March 1971)	744
3	*Hakims* and *Vaids* registered with Board of Ayurvedic and Unani Systems of Medicines (March, 1971)	3,515
4	Dentists etc , registered with Delhi Dental Association (March, 1971)	624
5	Nurses of Delhi registered with Punjab Nurses Registration Council, Ludhiana (June, 1971)	2,400

Research Centres And Institutions

There are five major research centres in the Union Territory of Delhi. These are as follows

1 Indian Council of Medical Research
2 National Institute of Communicable Diseases
3 National Family Planning Institute
4 Regional Family Planning Institute
5 National Institute of Health Administration and Education

Indian Council Of Medical Research*

The Indian Council of Medical Research was set up in 1912 with the specific object of sponsoring and developing medical research in the Country The Council had in 1969-70 six

Report of the Deptt of Health and Family Planning 1 969-70, *p* 93

permanent research institutes/centres out of which one known as Indian Registry of Pathology, was in New Delhi The research activities of the Council cover a wide spectrum The disciplines in which research programmes are undertaken cover a wide range of national health problems such as Cholera, environmental hygiene and sanitation, leprosy, maternal and child health, occupational health, virus and arthropod borne diseases, tuberculosis, venearal and dermatology diseases and nutrition. The council has also carried out researches on basic medical sciences e g., anatomy, bio-chemistry, endocrinology, microbiology, pathology, pharmacology and physiology

National Institute Of Communicable Diseases*

The Malaria Institute of India situated on Sham Nath Marg (Alipur Road), Delhi was reorganised and converted into the National Institute of Communicable Diseases, Delhi, on the 30th July, 1963 as the national centre for research and training in the field of communicable diseases and their control in India The Institute has a field centre at its south Indian branch at Coonoor

In this Institute research work is done in the divisions of epidemiology, medical entomology, microbiology, bio-chemistry, zoonosis and virology.

Vaccine Testing Centre

The Institute is assisting the national smallpox eradication programme and the cholera control programme in testing the vaccines used for these programmes, both imported as well as indigenous

National Family Planning Institute**

This Institute was established in 1962 mainly for the advancement of knowledge in various aspects of family planning movement in India In order to facilitate expeditious achievement of its objects, the Government of India registered this Institute on 20th November, 1964

*Report of the Deptt of Health and Family Planning 1969-70, p 81

**Ibid, p. 224

Regional Family Planning Institute

The Institute conducts training to equip the medical and para-medical personnel about the different aspects of Family Planning Programme

National Institute Of Health Administration And Education*

The National Institute of Health Administration and Education was registered as an autonomous body under the Indian Societies Registration Act in 1964 The primary objective of the Institute is to develop a corps of able, competent and managerial physicians, hospital and research oriented for effective management of health problems in the country

The Institute is managed by a governing body of which the Union Minister of Health, Family Planning is the chairman The Institute is financed entirely from grants-in-aid given by the Government of India.

The Institute arranges seminars and workshops on the important subjects of health administration and education A staff college course is also available

The Institute now offers training for doctorate course recognised by Delhi University in community health, comparable to the M D in other specialities The Institute also undertakes research projects on various aspects of health administration

Statutory Councils and Boards

Medical Council of India**

The Medical Council of India was established in Delhi under the Indian Medical Council Act, 1956 for the maintenance of the Indian medical education and recognition of medical qualifications.

Dental Council Of India***

The Dental Council of India was established under the Dentists Act, 1948, for the regulation of profession of dentistry It maintains uniform standards of dental education as well as to register the qualified dentists The Delhi

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*_Source: Report of Department of Health & Family Planning_ 1969-70, Page 83

**_Source: Ibid_, Page 121

***_Source Ibid_, Page 1[illegible]

Dental Council was also constituted under the above Act and its office is at Battery Lane, Delhi. It registers dentists, dental hygienists and dental mechanics of Delhi

Pharmacy Council Of India*

The Council was established as an autonomous body in 1949 under the Pharmacy Act, 1948 with a view to regulate the minimum educational standards required for qualifications as a pharmacist

Indian Nursing Council**

The main object of this council established in 1949, is to lay down uniform standards of nursing education under the Indian Nursing Council Act, 1947, and recognition of qualifications and other work relating to this object such as inspection of schools, maintenance of nurses register etc Nurses of Delhi are, however, registered by the Punjab Nurses Registration Council, Ludhiana

Board of Homoeopathic System Of Medicine

The Board was constituted in November, 1961 under the Delhi Homoeopathic Act, 1956 The Board registers Homoeopaths and awards diploma in Homoeopathic medicine and surgery (DHMS) From 1965 to 1971 the Board conducted DHS examinations for Homoeopathic practitioners to appear as private candidates Nehru Homoeopathic Medical College and Hospital established in 1967 by Dr Yudhvir Singh Homoeopathic Charitable Trust is also affiliated to the Board The college imparts four years training and 369 students were on its roll in 1971

Board Of Ayurvedic And Unani Systems Of Medicines

The Board of Ayurvedic and Unani systems of Medicine was constituted in 1950 under the East Punjab Ayurvedic and Unani Practitioners Act, 1949, as extended to the Union Territory of Delhi, to regulate the qualifications and to provide for registration of practitioners of Indian system of medicine with a view to encourage its development and ensuring the maintenance of an adequate standard of proficiency in the practice of these systems of medicines

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**Source* *Report of the Department of Health and Family Planning* 1969-70, Page 123

***Source* *Ibid*, Page 124

Drugs Control

The Drugs and Cosmetics Act was enacted in 1940 and rules thereunder were framed in 1945 The aim of this legislation is to control the standard, quality and purity of drugs and cosmetics The Act seeks to regulate the import, manufacture and sale of drugs and cosmetics and matters connected thereof The provisions relating to manufacture and sale are being enforced by the State governments and import by the Central Government In Delhi, the Drugs Control Department started functioning in 1948 and in the course of time, and the activities of the Department have increased many folds

The Director of Health Services Delhi Administration, Delhi is the ex-officio Drugs Controller for the Union Territory of Delhi He is assisted by two assistant drug controllers, besides field inspectors Functions and services rendered by the Department are

(i) To grant licences (i) for the manufacture of all categories of drugs, (ii) for sale of drugs, (iii) for the manufacture of cosmetics (iv) for manufacture of homoeopathic medicines and (v) for sale of homoeopathic medicines

(ii) To inspect at regular intervals the premises licensed for the manufacture and sale of drugs and cosmetics, to ensure that the conditions of licences and provisions of Drugs and Cosmetics Act are complied with

(iii) To inspect hospitals and dispensaries to check the storage conditions, stocks and quality of drugs

(iv) To take samples of drugs for analysis

(v) To institute prosecutions for the contraventions of the Drug Act and conduct cases in the court

(vi) To detect and investigate contraventions of Drugs and Magic Remedies (Objectionable Advertisements) Act, 1954, and launch prosecutions

(vii) To detect and investigate contraventions of Drugs (Price Control Order, 1970) and launch prosecutions

(viii) To sponsor application of manufacturers of drugs for import of raw-materials and to recommend distribution of raw-materials imported by State Trading Corporation etc,

(ix) To allot narcotic drugs to manufacturers in Delhi

In February 1972, there were 1,398 regular chemists, 2097 restricted licences and 78 Homoeopathic drug dealers. Ninety firms were manufacturing Allopathic drugs, 115 firms cosmetics and three firms were manufacturing Homoeopathic drugs

During the year 1970-71, 508, inspections of manufacturing premises and 1,520 inspections of sales premises were carried out

Over 400 drug samples were collected during the year 1970-71 Apart from the drug testing done by the outside agencies, the Directorate had under-taken testing of nearly 100 samples during the year in its own laboratory In addition to the above, the Drug Control Organisation had investigated over 300 complaints received

Preventive Health Services

During the first two decades the preventive health services were practically non-existent in the areas except that covered by the present Municipal Corporation of Delhi An anti-epidemic unit was set up in 1923 Recognizing the importance of public health measures a separate health department was created in 1927 which continued until it amalgamated in the Directorate of Health Services The Delhi Municipal Committee, New Delhi Municipal Committee, Delhi Shahdara Municipal Committees maintained separate dealth departments under their respective medical officers of health In the rural areas, the District Board maintained separate health staff With the formation of Municipal Corporation of Delhi, the responsibility of providing these services was entrusted to Municipal Corporation of Delhi for its areas including about 300 villages and to the New Delhi Municipal Committee for its own area The Delhi Cantonment Board caters to its own area through its own own health unit

Public Health And Sanitation Under Municipal Corporation Of Delhi

Delhi Municipal Corporation is divided into eight zones and each of the zone is in charge of the zonal health officer who is responsible for all the medical and public health activities within the zone On public health side zonal health officer is assisted by chief sanitary inspector, who looks after the sanitary and conservancy services through the sanitary inspectors and assistant sanitary inspectors There is one sanitary Inspector for each

constituency. The entire Corporation consirts of 100 constituencies At the headquarters, the public health and sanitation is supervised by one deputy health officer (Public Health), who administers through the zonal health officers. The main activities of the health staff are as under —

1 Conservancy and sanitation, including refuse removal and its disposal at the dumping ground,
2 Control over communicable diseases like cholera, gastro-enteritis food poisoning small pox, rabies etc.,
3 Maintenance and running of slaughter houses
4 Licensing of the trades under Prevention of Food Adulteration Act and the Corporation Act,
5 Food Hygiene work especially destruction of unwholesome and exposed food,
6 Checking of the food adulteration and lifting of the samples under Prevention of Food Adulteration Act

The Health Department is also responsible for medical care, child welfare services and family planning work

Slum Clearance

The huge influx of refugees and the accelerated pace of urbanisation threatened to make post independence Delhi into an ugly sprawling metropolis After partition Delhi, particularly whole of old Delhi was dotted with clusters and pockets of slushy slums There was acute shortage of houses City roads presented a picture of confusion and chaos Unauthorised construction was rampant The old residential places were turned into semi factory areas The public land and even protected monuments were heavily squatted upon The shopping areas were over crowded The wholesale trade centres were congested

The slum improvement and clearance work is done by Delhi Development Authority and the Municipal Corporation of Delhi in accordance with the provisions of the Slum Areas Improvement (and clearance) Act, 1956, (as amended from time to time) which came into force in the Union Territory on 8th February, 1957 The schemes for clearance of slums in Delhi are entirely financed by the Government of India

These authorities have carried out clearance-cum-beautification operations in the Yamuna Bazar, Jama Masjid, Desh Bandhu

Gupta Road, G T Road, area around Hanuman Temple on Irwin Road, Kela Godown, Idgarh, Tilak Bridge, Prasad Nagar, Gurdwara Moti Bagh, Ghata Masjid and localities of Daryaganj, Lajpat Nagar, Naya Bazar, Mirdad Road, Patel Nagar, Qutb Road, Asafali Road, Kotla Ground, Aliganj, B. K. Dutt Colony and Basti Nizamuddin and Shaktinagar, Shankar Road, I N A Colony and Vasant Vihar Colony Tenements have also been constructed for evictees

Sewage

Sewage from all over Delhi and New Delhi is brought to the following four sewage stations and treated at three sewage treatment plants shown as given below

1. Kilokari Pumping Station
2. Ring Road Pumping Station
3. Najafgarh Nalla Pumping Station
4. Keshopur Pumping Station

Sewage pumped from the above first station is treated at Okhla Disposal Works whereas the sewage pumped from the Najafgarh and Keshopur pumping stations is treated at Coronation Pillar Sewage Plant and the Keshopur plant respectively. The capacity of these three sewage treatment plants is as follows

1 Okhla	66 M G D (million gallons a day)
2 Coronation Pillar Plant	20 ,,
3 Keshopur Plant	12 ,,
Total	98 M G D

Water Supply

The beginning for provision of piped water supply in Delhi was made in 1895 when several wells were sunk on the bank of river Yamuna near Chandrawal The population of Delhi in those days was about two lakhs and the total supply available from the wells was about 2 M G D (million gallons a day) thereby giving a per capita per day supply of only ten gallons The yield from these wells gradually decreased with the result that these wells were abondoned and water supply was drawn directly from the river Yamuna and supplied after treatment through slow sand filters The slow sand filters were gradually replaced by rapid sand filters

The Delhi water supply had been dependent entirely upon the supplies from river Yamuna till the year 1952, but in subsequent years when the population of Delhi rose very high, the increased reuirements of water supply were met by making special arrangements of releases of water from West Yamuna Canal into the river from the adjoining State of Haryana This was necessary because Delhi, being a very small territory does not have any water resources of its own The underground water in Delhi area is poor in quality as well as quantity Delhi has therefore, necessarily to depend heavily for its water supply on the adjoining States of Haryana and Uttar Pradesh With the increase in population, the requirements fo water are rising further from year to year The situation worsens during the dry months of the year (March to June) when the Yamuna river discharge starts falling considerably and for some period its discharge is as low as 75 cusecs In order to tide over this persistent shortage an understanding was reached with the former Punjab State that a supply of 325 cusecs during the lean periods of the year will be made available so as to stabilise the supply from river Yamuna on a permanent basis

Water from the Yamuna is pumped at Wazirabad and Okhla head works and treated in five plants located at different places in the Union Territory The treated water is pumped to 16 reservoirs located in various localities of Delhi

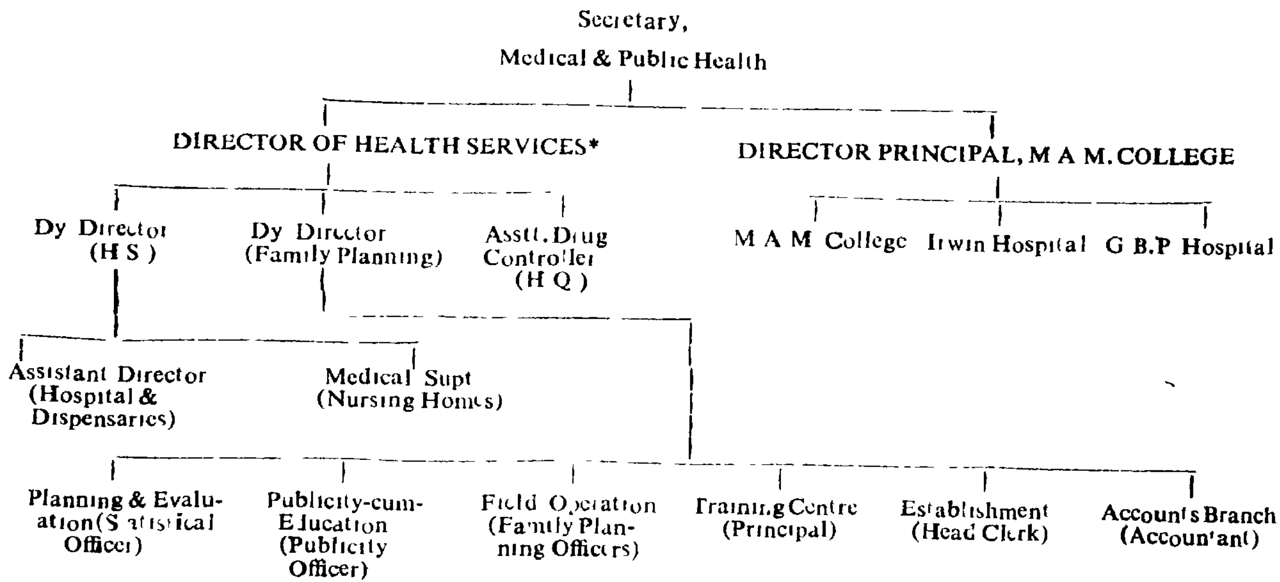
The water supply in 1971 was 168 million gallons daily as against 152 million gallons daily in 1969

The total water supplied and the population of Delhi served during various years is indicated below

Years	Population	Total average supplied in MGD	per capita Per day supply
	Lakhs	MGD	Gallons
1895	2·00	2·00	10
1941	6·95	16·60	24
1951	13·61	40·00	29
1961	24·61	77·00	32
1969	31·00	152·00	15
1971	36·03	168·00	16

APPENDIX I

Director of Health & Family Planning DELHI ADMINISTRATION



*Director of Health Services is also Drugs Controller, Director of Family Planning, Officer Commanding (Casualty Services), Supervising Authority for Nursing Homes and Chief Register of Births and Deaths

APPINDIX II

UNION TERRITORY OF DELHI

Progress of Family Planning Programme

Name of the implementing agency	IUCD inserted		Sterilisation performed		C C Users		Over all achievement	
	69—70	70—71	69—70	70—71	69—70	70—71	69—70	70—71
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1 Autonomous bodies	277	161	729	588	1,061	1,089	909	733
2 C G H S	592	1,534	283	334	2,697	40 332	2,728	4,205
3 Cantonment Board	105	129	50	49	1,009	1,159	169	189
4 Delhi Administration	358	531	1,086	986	1,301	1,343	1,314	1,275
5 D G H S	500	405	805	878	4,048	5,109	1,310	1,439
6 M C D	4,541	4,666	2,398	2,598	14,710	26,129	5,138	6,330
7 N D M C	229	220	271	214	2,526	4,337	558	648
8 Vol Organisation	472	663	2,281	1,830	5,478	8,694	2,895	2,776
9 Mobil Unit	203	151	323	282	7,492	6,589	1,015	881
TOTAL	7,277	8,460	8,226	7,759	64,610	94,772	16,036	18,476

APPENDIX III

List of Family Welfare Planning Centres and Post Parteen units in Delhi.

1. All India Institute of Medical Sciences, Ansari Nagar, New Delhi Post Parteen Unit.	
2. Lady Hardinge Medical College & Hospital, Punchkuian Road, New Delhi Post Parteen Unit	
3. Rural Health Training Centre Najafgarh, Delhi	F P. Centre
4 Safdarjang Hospital, New Delhi	Post Parteen Unit
5 C G H S Dispensary, Lodi Road II, New Delhi	F P. Centre
6 C G H S Dispensary, 6/76 Double Storey, Tilak Nagar, New Delhi.	,,
7. C G H S Dispensary, 2x, Chitragupta Road, New Delhi.	,,
8 C.G H S Dispensary, Rajori Garden, New Delhi	,,
9 C G.H S Dispensary, Lajpat Nagar, New Delhi	,,
10 C G H S Dispensary, 52/53, W.E A Karol Bagh, Behind Prahlad Market, New Delhi	,,
11 C G H S Dispensary, Andrews Ganj, New Delhi	,,
12 Moti Bagh Hospital, Moti Bagh, N D M C, New Delhi.	,,
13. Kitchner Road, N.D M C, New Delhi	,,
14 Central Family Planning, Institute, L-17, Green Park, New Delhi	,,
15. Lady Reading Health School, Bara Hindu Rao. Delhi	,,
16. Willingdon Hospital, New Delhi.	,,

17. R. K Puram, III,Q. No. 457, Sector VII, New Delhi	F. P Centre
18. C G H S Dispensary, Daryaganj, Delhi-6	,,
19 C G H S Dispensary, L-165, Sarojini Nagar, New Delhi	,,
20 C G H S Dispensary, 23, Pusa Road, New Delhi	,,
21 C G H S Dispensary, Laxmibai Nagar, New Delhi	,,
22 C G H S Dispensary R K. Puram II, New Delhi	,,
23. C G H S Dispensary, Shakti Nagar, Delhi-6	,,
24. Reading Road, N D M C . New Delhi	,,
25 Aurangzeb Lane, N D M C , New Delhi	,,
26 Andhra Vanitha Mandall, I.P Estate, New Delhi	,,
27 New Delhi Family Planning. Association, 3, Hanuman Road, New Delhi	,,
28 Delhi Maternity Hospital, Pusa Road, New Delhi	Post Parteen Unit
29. The Medical Officer Incharge, St Stephens Hospital, Tis Hazari, Delhi	,,
30 Hamdard Clinic & Nursing Home, New Delhi	F P. Centre
31 Delhi University Women's Association, Chhatra Marg, Behind Co-operative Store, Delhi	,,
32 R. B Seth Jassa Ram Hospital, Karol Bagh, New Delhi	,,
33. Tirath Ram Shah Hospital, 2, Battery Lane, Pajpore Road, Delhi.	,,
34. Sir Ganga Ram Hospital, Poorvi Marg, Rajinder Nagar, New Delhi	,,
35 Servant of the People Society, Madangir.	,,

36. Primary Health Centre, Alipur, Delhi	F. P Centre
37. Family Planning Centre, 772, Katra Neel, Chandni Chowk, Delhi.	,,
38 Jangpura, 2, Masjid Road, Near Church Road, New Delhi.	,,
39 Jheel Kurenja, Geeta Colony, Gandhi Nagar, Delhi	,,
40 Kalkaji Hospital, Building, Kalkaji, New Delhi	,,
41 Primary Health Centre, Khangawala, Delhi	,,
42 Hudson Line, Kingsway Camp, Delhi	,,
43 Lajpat Nagar Municipal Corpn , Near Market, Lajpat Nagar, New Delhi	,,
44 Malaviya Nagar Hospital, Malviya Nagar, New Delhi	,,
45 5276 T. T Post Lahori Gate, Delhi	,,
46 Primary Health Centre, Mehrauli, Delhi	,,
47 Mandir Wali Gali, Model Basti, Karol Bagh, New Delhi	,,
48 3436, Nicholson, Road, Kashmere Gate, Delhi-6	,,
49 Moti Nagar Hospital Building, Moti Nagar, Najafgarh Road, Delhi	,,
50 5221, Shora Kothi, Paharganj, New Delhi	,,
51. Patel Nagar Hospital, West Patel Nagar, Near Market, New Delhi	,,
52 Block No. 52, Old Rajinder Nagar, Maternity Home Near Gurdwara, New Delhi	,,
53. Nangia Maternity Home, Shakti Nagar, Delhi	,,
54. Sabzi Mandi, Delhi	,,
55 Victoria Zanana Hospital, Near Jagat Cinema, Jama Masjid, Delhi	Post Parteen Unit

56.	Primary Health Centre, Narela, Delhi.	F. P. Centre
57.	Family Welfare Planning Centre Din Dayal Upadhya Hospital.	Now closed
58	Dariba, Delhi	F. P. Centre
59.	Hindu Rao Hospital, Delhi	,,
60	Sarak Prem Narain, Delhi	,,
61	Azadpur, Delhi	,,
62.	Jawahar Nagar, Delhi	,,
63	Telaware, Delhi.	,,
64	Basti Harphool Singh, Delhi	,,
65	Motia Khan, Delhi	,,
66	Bagh Kare Khan, Delhi	,,
67	Shahdara, Delhi	,,
68	Seelampur, Delhi	,,
69	Delhi Cantonment Board, Delhi Cantt 10	,,
70	Post Parteen Unit, Irwin Hospital, New Delhi	
71	Family Planning Unit, Red Cross, Naween Shahdara, Delhi	
72	G L Maternity Hospital, Delhi	Post Parteen Unit
73	F W P Centre, Tri Nagar, Delhi	

CHAPTER XVII

OTHER SOCIAL SERVICES

Social welfare services are a new phase of public activities which have been assuming greater importance especially after independance.

As a welfare State the governments of various States and Union Territories are undertaking various measures for the amelioration of conditions and prospects of the backward sections of society which were hitherto neglected or exploited. For the welfare of the labour class and backward classes a number of welfare measures have been undertaken, which include prohibition, housing, medical and educational facilities, nutrition, facilities for rest and recreation, co-operative societies, nurseries and creches, paid holidays and social insurance measures etc

The present chapter deals with such welafre activities viz. labour welfare, prohibition, welfare of backward classes etc

Labour Welfare

With the increasing pace of industrialisation and urbanisation the position of workers became more hazardous and less secure Problems like fatal accidents, insecurity of work, unfair wages, unsatisfactory and unhygenic working and living conditions also became acute Government had therefore, to undertake measures to regulate the workers-employers relations and to ensure fair wages, satisfactory working conditions for the welfare of the labour

The statutes ensuring regular payment of wages every month, fixation of minimum wages and the implementation of such wages, settlement of industrial disputes, registration of labour unions and other such welfare measures as laid down by Government from time to time are implemented by the Labour Department which is headed by the Labour Commissioner

Organisation Of Labour Department

The need to set up a full fledged Labour Department in Delhi was felt during the period of Second World War in view of the need to maintain uninterrupted production and to provide

some machinery for satisfactorily resolving labour disputes. In 1945 Superintendent of Industries was declared *ex-officio* Labour Officer and a Labour Inspector and some clerical staff were appointed during the year 1946 under him. With effect from 1-12-1947 full fledged Directorate of Industries and Labour was created with Director of Industries Labour as its Head of Department and a whole time Labour Officer was also appointed with effect from July, 1948 under him. The work of conciliation in industrial disputes was looked after mainly by the Labour Officer under Directorate of Industries and Labour. With the passage of the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947, it become compulsory to commence conciliation proceedings in public utility industries where a notice of strike or lock-out was served. With increasing tempo of industrial activities as well as the continuous growth in the trade union movement as well as consciousness among industrial labour, it became necessary to appoint a full time Conciliation Officer from 1954. One more Conciliation Officer was appointed in 1957 and again one each in the year 1961, 1963, 1966 and 1969. In the meanwhile in 1961 the Directorate of Industries and Labour was bifurcated and a full time Labour Commissioner was appointed for the first time so as to give more attention to the Labour problems In 1965 a post of Deputy Labour Commissioner was created in order to assist the Labour Commissioner in day to day working of the department and to cope up with the increasing work. The number of Conciliation Officers has been increased subsequently from time to time with the result that the work of conciliation under the Industrial Dispute Act, 1947 was carried out in 1971 by fourteen officers including the Labour Commissioner, the Deputy Labour Commissioner, six Assistant Labour Commissioners, five Labour Officers and one Deputy Chief Inspector of Shops and Establishments.

The Inspectorate of Factories was created sometime in 1933-34 for Delhi, Ajmer and Marwara region In 1957 the work relating to Ajmer and Marwara was transferred to the respective States and the Inspectorate of Factories for Delhi continued to function independently till 1961 Thereafter its control and supervision was entrusted to the Labour Commissioner, Delhi. On 9th March, 1970 the Inspectorate was bifurcated and a separate organisation of Electrical Inspectorate was created which was entrusted with the work pertaining to the enforcement of Indian Electricity Act, 1910, Bombay Lifts Act, 1939 (as extended to Delhi) and Delhi Cinematograph Rules, 1953, Employment of Children Act, 1938 and Bombay Maternity Benefits Act, 1929 (as extended to Delhi).

The Labour Department is responsible for maintaining industrial peace by providing machinery for expeditious settlement of disputes between management of Industrial units and their employees, redressal of grievances, enforcement of labour laws and promotion of labour welfare activities.

Following Acts are enforced by the Labour Department:

1. Indian Electricity Act, 1910
2. Indian Boilers Act, 1923.
3. The Indian Trade Union Act, 1926
4. Bombay Maternity Benefits Act, 1929 (as extended to Delhi).
5. The Payment of Wages Act, 1936
6. Employment of Children Act, 1938
7. Bombay Lifts Act, 1939 (as extended to Delhi)
8. Delhi Lifts Rules, 1942
9. The Industrial Employment (Standing Orders) Act, 1946
10. Industrial Disputes Act, 1947
11. Factories Act, 1948
12. The Minimum Wages Act, 1948.
13. Working Journalist Act, 1951
14. Delhi Cinematograph Rules, 1953
15. The Shops & Establishments Act, 1954.
16. The Motor Transport Workers Act, 1961
17. The Payment of Bonus Act, 1965

The Labour Commissioner is over all incharge of the Labour Department of Delhi Administration and is also the *ex-officio* Secretary (Labour) He is assisted by a Deputy Labour Commissioner, who is the over all incharge of the administration side of the department and is also the chief man to render expert advice on labour matters to the Labour Commissioner There are six Assistant Labour Commissioners and four Labour Officers to deal with the disputes under the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947 A Labour Welfare Officer supervises the activities of

ten Labour Welfare Centres run by the department. The Chief Inspector and Deputy Chief Inspector of Shops and Establishments deal with the enforcement of Delhi shops and Establishment Act, Minimum Wages Act and Motor Transport Workers Act.

There is one Housing Officer who deals with the allotment cancellation or eviction and realization of rent of about 5,000 quarters constructed by the Delhi Administration, under the subsidised industrial housing scheme

Besides the above officers there is one chief and one Deputy Inspector of Factories and Boilers to deal with the Factories Act, Employment of Children Act, Bombay Maternity Benefits Act, etc They are assisted by eight Inspectors of Factories. There are also one Electrical Inspector and two Assistant Electrical Inspectors to deal with the Indian Electricity Act, Lifts Act and Cinematograph Rules

Enforcement Of Various Labour Laws By The Labour Department

Industrial Disputes Act, 1947.—Under the provisions of this Act Conciliation Officers deal with various types of industrial disputes like wrongful termination of service, working conditions, working hours, leave facilities, graded scales of pay, dearness allowance and payment of bonus etc The Conciliation Officer after receiving a statement of claims, calls both the parties and tries to bring about fair and reasonable settlement When both the parties agree to a settlement, a memorandum of settlement is signed before the Conciliation Officer In case where both the parties do not come to a settlement a failure report is sent to the Secretary (Labour), Delhi Administration, who after examining the report of the Conciliation Officer concerned and also the merits of the case either rejects the dispute and informs the complainants or refers the dispute to Labour Court/Industrial Tribunal as the case may be The Labour Court/Industrial Tribunal after hearing both the parties gives its award which is binding on both the parties and is published in the official Gazettee If any party fails to implement the terms and conditions of either a settlement or an award, necessary action is taken in the matter to get it implemented In some cases if there is a contravention of the provisions of the Industrial Disputes Act, even prosecution is also launched against the defaulting parties.

Delhi Shops & Establishment Act, 1954.—The Delhi Shops & Establishment Act was enforced from 1st February, 1955. It regulates hours of work, payment of wages, leave, holidays, terms

of service and other conditions of employment of persons employed in shops and establishments and opening Closing hours and weekly closed day of the Shops & Establishments. To start with there was a Chief Inspector of Shops & Establishment with a team of few Inspectors With the rapid increase in the number of shops & establishment, the enforcement staff was also strengthened correspondingly. All complaints regarding contravention of the provisions of the aforesaid Act and cases of non-payment of wages, discharge, dismissals etc are dealt by the Chief Inspector of Shops & Establishments assisted by the Inspectorate staff

Minimum Wages Act, 1948—This is a central piece of legislation providing for fixation of minimum rates of wages in certain sweated industries in which more than 1000 employees are employed in a State/Union Territory This Act *inter alia* provides for fixation or revision of minimum rates of wages, the procedure for such fixation or revision, the normal working hour for a day, payment of overtime wages, and payment of wages within stipulated time. To start with employment in local authorities, construction or maintenance of roads or in building operations stone-breaking and stone-crushing, public motor transport, dal and flour mills and in agriculture were covered from the year 1951 to 1952 which are already mentioned in the schedule appended to the Act. From the year 1953 onward there had been tremendous development in industries and the following employment were added to the Schedule under S 27 of the aforesaid Act

(i) Employment in Foundries

(ii) Employment in Metal Working Establishments.

(iii) Employment in Automobile Engineering Workshops

(iv) Employment in Printing Presses

(v) Employment in Textiles including Hosiery

(vi) Employment in Chemical Industry.

(vii) Employment in Delhi Transport Corporation

(viii) Employment in Shops & Other Establishments covered by the Delhi Shops and Establishments Act, 1954

(ix) Employment in Potteries

(x) Employment in Brick-kiln.

With the increase in the number of establishments covered and for effective enforcement of the Delhi Shops & Establishments Act and Minimum Wages Act, Delhi has been divided into three zones namely, Headquarters, Karampura and Shahdara. While the Karampura and Shahdara zones are looked after by an Asstt Labour Commissioner and Labour Officer respectively, the Headquarters is looked after by the Chief Inspector of Shops & Establishments

Indian Trade Union Act, 1926.—Under this Act both employers and workers organisations are registrable They have to provide for certain matters in their constitution i e, name of the union, its postal address, aims and objects, its scope, creation of separate political fund if any, subscriptions, donations, powers of the executive committee and its office bearers, the manner of their election submission of annual returns to the Registrar of trade unions Up-to-date information is maintained regarding total number of unions functioning, newly registered unions every month, and the cancellation and amendments in the constitution of the unions etc

Industrial Employment (Standing Orders) Act, 1946.—Under the provisions of this Act all industrial establishments employing 100 or more workers are required to frame standing orders for their employees Standing orders are to be certified by the certifying officer who after hearing both the employers and the unions of the employees or their elected representatives certifies the standing orders Standing orders provide for matters like classification of workmen, shift working, leave with wages and holidays, attendance and late coming, misconducts, suspensions and dismissals and several other matters relating to their service conditions

Payment of Bonus Act, 1965.—The Payment of Bonus Act, 1965, provides for payment of annual bonus ranging from 4% to 20% of the total earnings depending upon the available surplus. Broadly speaking, it applies to all the factories registered under the Factories Act, 1948 and other establishments employing 20 or more persons This Act was implemented in Delhi from December, 1967

Factories Act, Payment of Wages Act, Employment of Children Act, Indian Boilers Act etc. etc.—The Chief Inspector of Factories and Boilers is the over all incharge for enforcement of the aforesaid Acts

Indian Electricity Act, Life Act, And Cinematograph Rules.—The Electrical Inspector assisted by his staff is responsible for the enforcement of the aforesaid Acts.

Implementations And Evaluation Committee

The code of discipline in industry as adopted in the Indian Labour Conference held in 1958 is being looked after by a tripartite body set up for this purpose

Labour Advisory Board.—A Labour Advisory Board which is a tripartite body has been set up in Delhi All important labour matters pertaining to better industrial relations between the employers and the workmen in general, labour policies and implementation of various labour laws including practical difficulties experienced by the parties concerned and allied matters are discussed from time to time in the meetings of this board and its decisions are sent to the Government for consideration During the year 1969-70 it held three meetings Important issues like introduction of shift working in shops, change of opening, closing hours of flour mills, improvement of working of labour welfare centres, amendments in section 6 & 8(2) of the Delhi Shops & Establishments Act, 1954 fixation of uniform market day, exemptions under sections 15 & 16 of the Delhi Shops & Establishments Act etc etc are discussed in its meetings from time to time

Minimum Wages Advisory Board.—Minimum Wages Advisory Board was constituted in Delhi under the provisions of the Minimum Wages Act, 1948 It is also a tripartite body for discussing all important matters pertaining to fixation and revision of minimum rates of wages in different employments It also co-ordinates the activities of various Minimum Wages Advisory committees appointed under provisions of the aforesaid Act

Welfare Schemes.—The schemes for subsidised industrial housing, development and co-ordination of welfare activities, strengthening of labour information centre and provisions of a library and study tours for industrial workers were continued during the Plan-periods Under this scheme 2664, 144, 1184 and 880 quarters for industrial workers were constructed by this department at Karampura, Nehru Nagar, Giri Nagar, near Industrial Estate (Okhla), Vishwakarma Nagar (Shahdara), respectively. This scheme stipulate the construction of specified types of tenements for industrial workers either by Government or by the employers and thereafter renting them on subsidised rent to the eligible industrial workers

Besides, the quarters constructed by Delhi Administration, the following employers and co-operative societies have constructed quarters with the assistance obtained under this scheme —

(i)	M/s Hindustan Insecticides	120 quarters
(ii)	M/s D T C. . .	300 ,,
(iii)	M/s Modi Flour Mills .	22 ,,
(iv)	Capital Co-operative Industries Society	20 ,,
(v)	Thakkar Bapa Co-operative Society	38 ,,

Welfare Centres.—During the First Five Year Plan, seven welfare centres were started in the rented buildings while during the Second Five Year Plan period, three more centres (two in the rented building and one in the building constructed by the department) were started Thus in all ten labour welfare centres were started in various labour localities of Delhi These centres cater to recreational needs of industrial workers and their families by providing free facilities for various indoor and outdoor games, library and reading room services, nursery and adult education classes, handicraft classes—consisting of tailoring, stitching, embroidery and doll making for the female members of industrial workers, cultural programmes including dramatic performances, folk dances, variety programmes, musical classes and allied activities Every year inter centre sports tournament prize distribution-*cum*-cultural function is also organised

Development Indicating The Achievements In Various Fields

As already mentioned earlier, this Department aims at maintaining industrial harmony by providing machinery for expeditious investigation and settlement of industrial disputes which cause work-stoppage, strikes, lock-outs etc affecting production

During the last 25 years there has been tremendous development in trade and industries in the Union Territory of Delhi resulting in more and more employment in both trade and industries. At the same time there had been considerable increase in the number of trade unions organized by the workmen to protect and improve their lot by concerted action

The Department has made efforts for better deal to the workmen in regard to wage rates, working conditions and fringe benefits etc A large number of industrial disputes are normally decided by the intervention of the conciliation machinery and also by awards of Labour Courts/Industrial Tribunals The

important improvements in the conditions of the workers mainly relate to liberalisation of casual leave, earned leave and sick leave, standardisation of festival holidays, introduction of gratuity schemes, extension of benefits of Employees Provident Fund Act, Employees State Insurance Scheme to the members of the families of the workmen, grant of graded pay-scales separate dearness allowance linked with the cost of living index and elimination of contract labour practices

Achievements made by the Labour Department in various fields are given in Appendix I to XI

Prohibition

Prohibition of intoxicating drinks and drugs is a national goal and its implementation is an obligation on the States and Union Territories The Constitution of India enjoins upon the State to carry out prohibition in the interest of the health and welfare of the society The Directive Principles of State Policy under Article 47 of the Constitution read "The State shall regard raising of the level of nutrition and the standard of living of its people and the improvement of public health as among its primary duties, and in particular the State shall endeavour to bring about prohibition of the consumption except for medicinal purposes of intoxication drinks and of drugs which are injurious to health."

In Delhi the sale and use of alcoholic beverage and other intoxicants is regulated under the following Acts

1 The Punjab Excise Act (I of 1914) as extended to Delhi
2 The Dangerous Drugs Act (II of 1930)
3 The Drugs Act (XXII of 1948)
4 Indian Power Alcohol Act (XXII of 1948)
5 Medicinal and Toilet Preparations (Excise Duties) Act, 1958.

Measures For Partial Prohibition

Total prohibition is not possible in Delhi due to its peculiar position not only as the capital of the country but also as a metropolitan city where foreign missions and embassies are located and persons from different parts of the world come as tourists or on business trips Their requirements of liquor

have to be catered for. Effective steps in the direction of partial prohibition are being taken since 1956. There is complete ban on sale of liquors and *bhang* at places other than the licensed premises The number of country liquor shops which in the year 1955-56 used to be seven was reduced to 3 in 1970-71 and further restricted to 2 in 1971-72. These shops were shifted from congested areas to remoter localities--away from the main centres of demand The quantity of country liquor permitted to be sold through the licensed vendors has been fixed at three lakhs litres though previously there was no restriction on saleable quantity The strength of country liquor has also been reduced from 80 to 50 degree *Dhabas* which used to be attached to country liquor shops were also abolished The duty on country liquor has also been considerably increased The hours of sale at liquor shops have been reduced by 1½ hours No country liquor can be imported into the Union Territory of Delhi, from any place outside Delhi No new licence for retail sale of Indian made foreign liquor is being granted The number of such licenses stands at 27 since 1956 The first day of every month, every Wednesday and all holidays due to religious festivals and national days have been declared as dry days when the country and foreign liquor shops remain closed and no sale of liquor is allowed

Following are some of the other steps taken by Delhi Administration towards prohibition

1 Drinking in public places and in motor vehicles parked at public places is completely banned

2 Liquor licenses given to restaurants were discontinued from 1956

3 The unrestricted sale of liquor in hotels is banned and residents alone are permitted to consume liquor in their private rooms

4 The clubs are licensed and permitted to sell liquor to their members only during specified hours, except on "weekly guest nights" on which liquor could be served to guests also.

5 Advertisements in any form soliciting the use of liquors have been banned in the Union Territory of Delhi

6. Sale of liquor to persons below the age of 25 years is prohibited

7. Possesion limit of foreign liquor is reduced from 12 bottles to 3 bottles.

8 The licence fee from hotels and wholesale and retail dealers for sale of foreign wines and liquors was substantially increased

In 1961 a de-addiction clinic was set up in Irwin Hospital to help addicts of liquor and other intoxicants to give up their habit This Clinic was working on Wednesdays and 20 to 25 patients used to attend but it was closed down in 1968. The Delhi Municipal Corporation has now started such a treatment clinic from 1st April, 1972 in Hindu Rao Hospital and is functioning on Tuesdays

Prohibition Propaganda

In order to combat the dual evil of drinking and illicit traffic in liquor a prohibition and propaganda unit was organised under the Directorate of Public Relations There were five prohibition propaganda centres receiving subsidy from the Planning Commission These centres organised public meetings, corner meetings, *bhajans* and *kirtans*, discussions, discourses, exhibitions, cultural programmes and dramas in areas predominently inhabited by labourers and Harijans Educative films were screened in *jhuggi* settlements and other areas, and anti-liquor slides were shown in cinema halls Indirect prohibition propaganda was also done by organising games and recreation, adult literacy classes, craft training for women, and child welfare activities These centres were discontinued in 1968 and now greater stress is laid on support to voluntary bodies having activities in the field of prohibition The Delhi Prohibition Council, a voluntary organisation set up in 1956 with the object of bringing total prohibition in Delhi by educating the public of the evils of drinking, has been carrying on active propaganda through organising seminars, exhibitions, conferences, prohibition weeks, individual counselling and other methods of publicity Other voluntary organisations working in this field are Bharat Sevak Samaj Harijan Sevak Sangh, Gandhi Smarak Nidhi and Bharat Sadhu Samaj

Administrative Prohibition Committee

The Delhi Administration had constituted an Administrative Prohibition Committee with Mayor of Delhi as its Chairman to examine the prohibition policy of the Administration and to

advise on steps to bring about complete prohibition in the Union Territory of Delhi The Committee in its interim recommendations has suggested the following steps --

1 The number of country liquor shops should be reduced, and if possible the strength of the country liquor may also be suitably reduced

2 The country liquor should ultimately be made available only to persons addicted who should be registered for the purpose

3 Wide publicity be given to the bad effects of liquor particularly in localities where workers and poor people reside

4 A de-addiction clinic may be opened at Irwin Hospital for the treatment of addicts

5. There should be no fresh issue of liquor licenses However, in the case of hotels only 4 or 5 star category hotels may be granted liquor licenses on the recommendations of Ministry of Tourism

In spite of concerted efforts appreciable progress has not been achieved in prohibition in Delhi as in the adjoining States the policy of prohibition has been given up and there is no concrete step towards checking of inflow of liquor and spirits in the Union Territory of Delhi The liquor shops just across the border are a great impetus to the bootleggers and smugglers Accordingly on 7th May, 1970 a meeting of the Ministers/Secretaries/Excise Commissioners of the neighbouring States was called The question of adoption of a uniform prohibition policy in all the neighbouring States was discussed threadbare at this meeting Considering the actual state of affairs obtaining in the neighbouring States, it was felt that it might be difficult to enforce a policy of complete prohibition for the present

Measure To Check The Sale Of Spurious Liquor

The distillation of illicit liquor went on increasing and people addicted to liquor and not getting it in the normal way fell into the clutches of distillers of illicit liquor who do not hesitate to add denatured spirit to their brew to give it a greater kick In January 1972, 112 deaths occurred in Delhi by drinking of such poisonous liquor The Lt Governor ordered a Judicial enquiry regarding the extent of

seizures, deaths, recoveries and permanent disablement caused by the intake of poisonous liquor, as also into the circumstances in which the liquor was stored and the persons responsible for distilling it An important term of reference was whether there was negligence at any level by the authorities.

In March, 1972 another similar tragedy occurred in which 46 deaths were reported by drinking of poisonous liquor. A meeting of top officials of the Administration reviewed the working of liquor shops and their supplies, and discussed measures to check the sale of spurious liquor in the capital. It was decided that all country liquor shops should be run by the Administration itself and that their number be increased Accordingly the Government now runs seven country liquor shops The Administration also realised that it was not possible to curb the consumption of alcohol through fiscal measures, and that real solution lay in lowering the price of alcholic beverages to a fairly responsible level The price of country liquor has therefore, been reduced so that one addicted to drink may not take recourse to contraband drinks. The number of dry days have been revised by making Wednesday every week and 1st and 2nd day of the month as dry days in place of Tuesday and Friday in the week and only 1st of the month as dry days The figures for the consumption of intoxicants in Delhi are given in Appendix XII

Excise Department

The administration and general superintendence and directions of all matters relating to excise vest in the Excise Commissioner subject to the control of Lt Governor The Excise Commissioner is also the appellate and revisional authority under the Excise Act. One of the Additional District Magistrates is the Collector of Excise. He is also the appellate authority against the orders of all Excise Officers subordinate to him.

The District Excise Officer, who is vested with 1st Class powers, supervises the work of inspectorate staff. The Inspectorate staff in 1972 consisted of nine Inspectors, eleven Sub-Inspectors, and one Police Sub-Inspector. The staff is responsible for collection of excise revenue, inspection of various excise vends, prevention and detection of offences under the Acts administered by the Department For this purpose the working has been divided into four wings *viz.*, Enforcement unit, Chemical works unit, General unit and Preventive unit.

The functions of these units are as under

Enforcement Unit.—Like Police, for purpose of enforcement, this unit has been divided into three districts namely, North, South and Central. The staff detailed in this unit is generally responsible for collection of revenue, inspection of vends and prevention and detection of crime in the area under their jurisdiction

Chemical Unit.—The staff in this unit supervises the working of bounded and non-bounded manufactures licensed under the Medicinal and Toilet Preparations Excise Duties Act for manufacture of dutiable goods They also check the illegal manufacture, import, export and transport of medicinal and toilet preparations.

General Unit.—The General unit is entrusted with the supervision of issue of industrial alcohol to the alcohol based industries as well as the supervision of country spirit and bounded ware house

Preventive Unit.—The unit is mainly responsible for prevention of crime relating to inter-state and international smuggling The staff of this unit have jurisdiction all over the Union territory of Delhi for the detection of excise crimes

Social Welfare Department

Social Welfare.—The Department of Social Welfare was established in 1959 with merely three institutions. Prior to this, the department was a part of the Directorate of Education Gradually and steadily new institutions and services were started to meet the emerging social problems In May 1972, the Department of Social Welfare had 42 Institutions and services covering almost every field in the social welfare

The Department is primarily concerned with the enforcement of the following social legislations·

(i) Good Conduct Prisoners Probational Release Act, 1926

(ii) Suppression of Immoral Traffic Act, 1956.

(iii) Women's and Children's Institutions (Licensing) Act, 1956.

(iv) **Probation of Offenders Act, 1958.**

(v) Bombay Prevention of Begging Act, 1959

(vi) Children Act, 1960.

Besides enforcing these social legislations in the Union Territory of Delhi and maintaining various statutory and non-statutory residential institutions and services, the activities of the Department include provision of financial assistance to socially and physically handicapped persons and grants-in-aid to voluntary social welfare organisations and institutions. The number of inmates in the institutions run by the department is more than 2,500 at any time, in additon to the beneficiaries of services, like Probation, Foster Care, Counselling and Guidance Bureau, Travellers Aid Bureau, Prison Welfare Service etc., whose number generally runs between 4,000 and 5,000 in a year.

Child Welfare.—The Children Act, 1960 enforced in the Union Territory of Delhi is among the model legislations in the country for dealing with delinquent, neglected and other socially handicapped children. The Child Welfare Board and the Children's Court deal with the cases of the neglected and delinquent children respectively. The Department is running two observation homes, three children homes, one home for mentally retarded children and one special school under the Act. The number of inmates/beneficiaries in April, 1972, was 1412.

To meet the requirements of other socially handicapped children, one institution for the destitute, vagrant children and homeless probationers, one for the children of the denotified tribes and one for the healthy children of the leprosy patients are being run The daily strength of the inmates in these institutions was 265 in 1967

For supplementing the institutional programme, there is a Foster Home Care Scheme which aims at providing placement of orphan, destitute and neglected children in the care of the foster families.

There is also a Counselling and Guiding Bureau which provides preventive services to curb delinquent tendencies among the children of the slum areas.

Eradication Of Beggary.—Delhi is the first Union Territory /State in the northern India to undertake effective anti-begging measures under law. While the responsibility for rounding up beggars from the streets rests with the Police, the classification

of beggars after their arrest and their detention on commital by the court is the responsibility of the Department. Eight Beggar Homes are being run by the Department under the scheme which provides free boarding, lodging and training in various crafts to the committed beggars. (1973-74).

Welfare Of The Physically Handicapped.—The Department is running a school for deaf and dumb boys and girls which, with an attendance of about 425, is one of the premier institutions in the country.

A sheltered workshop is run under the title of Training-cum-Production Centre for providing training and production facilities to deaf and dumb, blind and orthapedically handicapped The Centre besides providing training facilities in tailoring, book binding and caning of chairs, gives the trainees initial employment. Most of the cane work, stitching of liveries and book binding in the offices under the Delhi Administration is handled by it.

Probation Services.—The probation services are another vital organisation of the department The work is mainly two fold, firstly to canduct social investigations into the cases of children and adults referred by the courts and to supervise the offenders who are released on 'probation supervision'

After Care Services.—After Care Homes for boys and girls with a total capacity of 200 have also been established for providing free shelter and rehabilitation of socially handicapped women and adolescent boys

Other Specialized Services Schemes

Travellers Aid Bureau.—The Bureau aims at providing protection to innocent women, girls and children from undesirable elements at the Delhi Main Railway Station The workers of the Bureau contact young and innocent women and children, who are found stranded at the railway station platform and guide them to proper places or secure temporary admission for them in the institution of the Department

Prison Welfare Services.—The main object of the scheme is to help needy prisoners of the Central Jail and to provide protection to their family and rehabilitate the prisoners

Welfare Of Aged Persons.—A home for aged persons was started in 1971 to provide institutional care to needy persons

over sixty years of age. Free board lodging, general care, medical attention and other facilities are provided.

A Home for old and infirm freedom fighters have also been set up on October 2, 1974, by the Home Ministry, under the supervision of the Directorate of Social Welfare.

Financial Assistance.—Under this scheme needy widows, poor and destitute students, old and infirm persons, persons suffering from incurable diseases, maternity cases of the poor and the T. B. patients are given financial assistance. During the year 1970-71 about 3 lakhs rupees were distributed to such needy persons

The Department is also running mobile creches for working women at various sites of construction in the Union Territory

The institution and services functioning under the Department of Social Welfare, Delhi Administration are given in Appendix-XIII

Research, Training And Evaluation Cell

A Research, Training and Evaluation Cell has recently been created, which organises short term orientation and refresher courses for different categories of staff It undertakes survey into and evaluation of various social problems and institutions. Under this programme, a reference library has been set up at the headquarters and a quarterly Journal 'Jan Kalyan' is also published

Organisation Of The Department.—The Development Commissioner is the Ex-Officio Director of Social Welfare He is assisted by a Joint Director One Asstt Director, and Administrative Officer, and one Special Officer (Research-Training and Evaluation)

Social Welfare Institutions Services Under The Govt. Of India

Besides the institutions run by the Delhi Administration, the following social welfare institutions/services are also functioning in the Union Territory under the Directorate of Social Welfare and Rehabilitation, Ministry of Education and Social Welfare Government of India

Training-cum-Production Centres.—The number of these centres was 19 in 1972 These were originally started for refugee women after the partition of the Country, but at present these are open for all destitute and needy women of weaker sections.

Refugee Handicrafts Emporium.—This is being run in Connaught Circus for marketing of handicraft articles prepared by destitute women

Kasturba Niketan.—It is a permanent liability Home for destitute women who came as refugees from Pakistan It has a strength of 400 women including their children Usually the women are provided all amenities of life including food, clothing, and shelter free of cost but some women who would like to make own arrangements of food etc living in the Niketan itself are given a stipend of Rs 35/- p m There are some cases who live outside the Niketan and receive Rs 20/- p m as maintenance charges

Under Social Welfare Department, Govt of India, a 'Model School for the Mentally Retarded Children and Educable and Trainable Retarded Children' is functioning at Lajpat Nagar It has 80 children on roll and education is provided upto 4th standard Training in simple craft is also provided in wood work, cane work tailoring etc The treatment provided is through psychological approach

Advancement Of Backward Classes

According to the list given in the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes (Modification) Order, 1956, which was issued to implement the provisions of the State Re-organisation Act, 1956, there are 36 Scheduled Castes in the Union Territory of Delhi Their population was 3,41,555 according to 1961 census which constituted 12 9 per cent of the total population of Delhi According to 1971 census their population was 6 36 lakhs constituting 15 6 per cent of the total population of Delhi There are no Scheduled Tribes in Delhi.

The Constitution of India has granted a number of privileges to Backward Classes and special grants are also being paid by Govt of India for their amelioration The drawbacks of Backward Classes are three fold *viz.* educational, economic and social. Special schemes have, therefore, been formulated by the State Governments under the Five Year Plans for raising the educational standards of Backward Classes and for promoting their social and economic well being for acclerating the pace of their advancement.

Since the beginning of Second Plan an amount of about Rs 32 lakhs was spent on special programme for the welfare of Backward Classes in Delhi, in addition to outlays from general development programmes The expenditure on the special schemes relating to educational, economic and social advancement under the Central and State Sector since the beginning of Second Plan and the outlay included in the Fourth Plan is given in the following pages

Educational And Economic Rehabilitation

Education among the backward classes has been encouraged by instituting scholarships and provision for hostel etc The expenditure on the schemes under the State and Central sector is given below:

(Rupees in lakhs)

Item	IInd Plan	IIIrd Plan	Annual Plans 1966-69 Exp	IVth Plan outlay
	State Sector			
1 Vocational & Technical Scholarships to Scheduled Castes	0·36	1·36	1·13	1·00
2 Vocational & training scholarships to other Backward Classes	Nil	0 79	0·55	4·00
3. Meritoriouns Scholarships to Scheduled Castes (boys & girls) . .	Nil	Nil	Nil	1·00
4 Girls hostels for Scheduled Caste	Nil	Nil	Nil	0·80
5 Subsidy for small scale and Cottage Industry	Nil	0 01	0 03	3·00
	Central Sector			
1 Scholarship to Scheduled Castes trainees during their apprenticeship .	Nil	Nil	Nil	0·45
2 Short term courses for preparation of Scheduled Castes candidates for competitive examination . . .	Nil	Nil	Nil	3·50
3. Girls Hostel for Scheduled Castes . . .	N	Nil	Nil	2·00

A brief description of some of the above mentioned special schemes is given below:

Vocational And Technical Scholarships To Scheduled Castes And Other Backward Classes.

It envisages the grant of vocational and technical scholarship to Scheduled Castes and other Backward Classes trainees of different Industrial Training Institutes run by Delhi Administration In 1972, there were 8 Industrial Training Institute and Scheduled Castes trainees undergoing training in these institutions were granted scholarships at the rate of Rs. 45/- per month. This is a continued scheme This scheme occupies a central position in the efforts to improve the economic standards of the Scheduled Castes.

Meritorious Scholarships To Girls.—Hitherto mostly male students have been benefited and in the case of girls belonging to Scheduled Castes, the education is still low The scheme proposed under the Fourth Five Year Plan aims to help and encourage the meritorious girl students of Scheduled Castes

Short Term Courses.—The institution for pre-coaching and preparation of Scheduled Caste candidates for the following competitive examination was started in Delhi in 1969-70

1 Examinations conducted by Union Public Service Commission (except competitive examinations for which the pre-coaching is given at Allahabad and Chandigarh).

2. Competitive examinations for Delhi Administration subordinate Services Grade III & IV

Reservation In Recruitment.—In accordance with the provision made under Article 335 of the Constitution of India, the Delhi Administration have fixed the following minimum percentages for reservation of seats in Govt. jobs for the Backward Classes. The instructions issued by the Govt. of India, from time to time are also applicable to the Delhi Administartion.

Category of Service	Percentage of vacancies to be reserved in recruitment	Sch. Castes	Sch. Tribe
Class I II III. & IV	1. Direct recruitment on all-India basis .		
	(a) By open competition (i e through the U P.S C. or by means of open competitive test held by any other authority) .	15%	7½%
	(b) Otherwise than at (a) above	16·2/3%	7½%
	2 Posts filled by promotion .		
	(a) through limited departmental competitive examination in Class II, III & IV in Grades or Service in which the element of direct recruitment if any, does not exceed 50% .	15%	7½%
	(b) By selection in Class III & IV posts, in Grades or Services in which the element of direct recruitment if any, does not exceed 50%	15%	7½%
	(c) On the basis of seniority subject to fitness in appointment to all Class-I, II, III & IV posts in Grades or services in which the element of direct recruitment, if any, does not exceed 50%	15%	7½%

The number of employees belonging to Scheduled Castes/ Tribes working in Delhi Administration as on 31st March, 1972, is given below

Class of service	Total employed	Scheduled Castes/ Tribes Employees	Percentage
One	814	14	1·7
Two	877	27	3·1
Three	39,438	3,071	7·8
Four	7,912	2,520	31·9
	49,041	5,632	11·5

Subsidies And Scholarships:

These are given to improve the economic lot of the Scheduled Castes Skilled Harijans who want to settle in their own trades are given tools & equipments to the extent of Rs. 500. Scholarships are offered to the school students to continue their studies. These scholarship are given to students studying between Vth and XI standard and the rate of scholarship for classes V and VI is Rs 30, VII and VIII Rs 40, IX and X Rs 50 and XI Rs 60 per annum

The number of beneficieries and amount paid during the last five years is as under

Year	No of beneficieries	Amount Rs
1966—67	14,117	5,02,670
1967—68	16,651	5,98,890
1968—69	22,519	8,93,920
1969—70	22,426	8,32,870
1970—71	18,780	7,13,420

Social Welfare.—The following schemes have been framed to raise the social standards of the Scheduled Castes

State Sector Items	2nd Plan exp	3rd Plan exp	1966-69 exp	IVth Plan Outlay
			(Rupees in lakhs)	
1. Housing Subsidy	9 82	11·70	5·99	30·00
2. Housing Sites	Nil	1·97	0·11	3·00
3 Improvement of drinking water facilities to Scheduled Castes	0·92	Nil	Nil	3·00
4 Grants in aid to non-official organisation	0·14	0·91	0·40	3·00
Central Sector				
1. Ashram Schools	Nil	Nil	0·34	0·30
2. Improvement in working and living conditions for sweepers and scavangers	0·10	0·40	Nil	6·00
3. Setting up of an Evaluation Cell in the Harijan Welfare Board	Nil	Nil	Nil	0·87

Housing Subsidy.—Under the scheme a grant of Rs 900/- is given to the members of Scheduled Caste particularly, to scavengers and sweepers

The subsidy is given in four instalments It is a continued scheme. During the IV Plan an amount of Rs. 30 lakhs was proposed for 3000 houses

House Sites.—This scheme envisages the house site plots upto 125 Sq. yards to the landless Harijan familities for improving their living condition in the rural areas of Delhi This is a continued scheme During the Fourth Plan an amount of Rs 3 lakhs was proposed for the payment of cost of 75 *bighas* of land which was to be acquired in 50 villages

Ashram School.—The Ashram School helps in the psychological development of the young Scheduled Castes children and prepare them for higher education The purpose behind the Ashram School is to segregate the children of sweepers and scavangers to save them from temptation of their parents to put them to work at an early age either to get some relief for themselves or get additional earnings to supplement their family income It ensures for these children better environ free from any sense of inferiority complex to enable them to develop into normal, capable and useful citizens. An Ashram School under the Harijan Sewak Sangh was started during the year 1966-67 with the strength of 30 students They have to study upto five classes of the primary sections In 1972, 120 students were studying in Ashram School, which is run by Harijan Sewak Sangh, Kingsway Camp, Delhi, under the central plan.

Improvements In The Working And Living Conditions Of Sweepers And Scavengers.—This is a continued scheme under which 100 per cent grant-in-aid is given to Local Bodies for the supply of wheel barrows, gum boots, buckets etc to the sweepers and scavengers for eliminating the practice of carrying night soil as head load

Besides, under this scheme it is proposed to give grant up to Rs 500 each to the sweepers and scavengers residing in the urban areas of Delhi for the repair of their houses and for improvement of their living conditions

Harijan Welfare Board.—In Delhi, a Harijan Welfare Board has been constituted by the Lt Governor to advise the Delhi Administration on various matters relating to the uplift of Scheduled Castes and other Backward Classes The Fourth Plan has provided an amount of 87 thousand for setting up of an evaluation cell in the Harijan Welfare Board.

APPENDIX I

Industrial disputes handled in conciliation

Year	Received during the year	Settled during the year	Failure reports sent to the Admn.
1961	1,068	426	192
1962	1,113	889	289
1963	1,041	751	215
1964	1,360	971	314
1965	1,226	908	384
1966	2,178	1,369	621
1967 . .	2,354	1,596	792
1968 . .	1,926	956	490
1969 . . .	2,001	1,093	851
1970	2,053	701	800

APPENDIX II

Registration of trade union under the Indian Trade Unions Act 1926

Year	No of Unions	Membership
1935	16	8,259
1940	28	24,376
1944	33	24,614
1948 . . .	63	36,500
1950 . . .	92	96,275
1955	267	1,81,755
1960	372	2,25,155
1965	450	2,89,800
1967	498	3,15,550
1969	557	3,27,465

APPENDIX III

Complaints received regarding non implementation of settlements/awards & the Amount realised to the workmen

Year	Brought forward	Received during the year	Disposed of during the year	Under consideration at the end of the year	Recoveries
					(In Rupees)
1962 . . .	13	68	70	11	N.A.
1963 . . .	11	64	49	26	N.A.
1964 . . .	26	108	105	29	N.A.
1965 .	29	127	94	61	10,000
1966 . . .	61	152	177	36	3,35,000
1967 . .	36	217	173	80	4,07,750
1970 . . .	38	334	354	18	8,92,689

APPENDIX IV

Delhi Shops & Establishments Act 1954

Year	No of Establishments till 31st December	No of workmen employed
1	2	3
1956	27,123	50,282
'957 . . .	37,105	67,346
1958 . . .	47,367	85,969
1959 . . .	54,678	98,516
1960	61,239	1,12,303
1961	67,862	1,25,847
1962	67,938	1,44,441

APPENDIX IV—*Contd*

1	2	3
1963	84,238	1,55,457
1964	91,281	1,68,134
1965	99,918	1,81,186
1966	1,09,312	1,98,220
1967	1,21,885	2,16,767
1968	1,32,436	2,30,498
1969	1,42,072	2,43,566
1970	1,55,614	2,61,627

APPENDIX V

Shops & Establishments

Year	No of prosecution launched	No of cases decided by the court	Amount of fine realised	No of establishments inspected	No of individual complaints received	No of individual complaints settled	Amount got realised to the worker
			(in Rs)				(in Rs)
1966	16,130	11,604	3,77,851	31,665	1,442	1,216	N A
1967	11,096	3,635	2,73,598	25,763	2,543	2,693	1,45,092
1968	10,980	8,181	3,09,721	22,932	2,287	2,116	1,49,889
1969	18,350	10,179	3,62,525	20,715	3,983	3,680	4,59,342
1970	26,302	13,451	5,06 901	26,779	4,308	4,242	3,62,978

APPENDIX VI

Man-days lost due to strikes & lock outs

Year	No of strikes/ lock out	No of man-days lost
1967	85	1,11,899
1968	67	2,31,779
1969	37	92,532
1970	41	1,55,290

APPENDIX VII

Inspections & prosecutions under the Minimum Wages Act 1948

Particulars	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970
Inspections made	3,933	3,787	3,387	2,900	1,159	1,464	1,890	1,503	10,691	19,437
Irregularities detected	634	558	560	422	258	494	453	638	705	1,462
Prosecutions launched	146	100	153	203	109	224	120	92	364	1,271
Cases decided by the court	143	58	66	118	109	53	57	70	107	563
Amount of fine imposed (in Rupees),	8,499	2,385	3,594	3,925	4,320	1,955	2,461	3,290	6,776	28,535

APPENDIX VIII

The following employment covered under the provisions of the Minimum Wages Act, 1948 together with the number of times minimum rates of wages were revised etc.

S. No.	Year	Name of the Employment	Date of fixation of wages	No. of times rates revised
1	1951	Construction or maintenance of roads or building operations	12-3-51	3
2	1951	Employment in agriculture	26-6-51	1
3	1951	Stone breaking & stone crushing	12-3-1951	2
4	1952	Employment in Local Authorities	N A.	Under the process of revision
5	1952	Dal or Flour Mills	19-3-1952	
6	1952	Employment in Public Transport	Do	1
7	1953	Employment in Automobile Engineering including services and repair work of Automobile.	1-9-1953	2 (3rd revision under consideration.)
8	1953	Employment in any Foundary with or without attached machine shop	1-9-1953	Do.
9	1953	Employment & Printing Presses	Do	Do
10	1954	Employment in any metal working establishemnts other than Foundries & Automobile Engineering work-shop	23-8-1954	4th revisions is under consideration.

11	1963	Employment in the Brick kiln Industry	30-12-1963	1
12	1966	Employment in Pottery Industry	1-6-1966	1
13	1967	Employment in all shops & other establishments covered by the Delhi Shops & Establishments Act, 1954	12-7-1967	1st revision is under consideration.
14.	1970	Employment in Textile Industry (including Hosiery)	1-12-1970	Do.

APPENDIX IX

FACTORIES

Registration & removal of factories . year-wise (excluding Ordinance factories)

Year	No of factories at the beginning of the year	Newly regis-tered during the year.	Removed during the year	No of factories at the end of year.	No of working factories	No of closed factories.	No of factories not sub-mitted-annual return	No of Ordinance factories	Average daily no of workers employed in working factories
1959	933	95	38	990	956	34	66	17	54,485
1960	990	100	46	1,044	1,015	29	85	17	57,793
1961	1,044	71	19	1,096	1,065	31	95	18	60,317
1962	1,096	104	18	1,182	1,148	34	228	18	62,992
1963	1,182	93	25	1,250	1,217	33	282	19	66,572
1964	1,250	66	23	1,293	1,263	30	680	19	71,089
1965	1,293	72	9	1,356	1,312	44	457	21	74,234
1966	1,356	66	19	1,403	1,332	71	367	20	76,261
1967	1,403	144	125	1,422	1,390	32	320	21	76,178
1968	1,422	127	45	1,504	1,434	70	459	20	76,641
1969	1,504	124	76	1,552	1,506	46	450	20	80,237

APPENDIX X

FACTORIES

Year	No of factories given exemption of sec 51	No of plans approved	No of Inspection	Prosecutions launched	Convictions obtained	Amount of fine realised (in Rs)
1963	25	106	513	57	19	1,005
1964	26	101	1,288	172	50	2,565
1965	26	135	1,036	168	223	10,100
1966	26	121	1,173	170	203	9,200
1967	26	170	1,110	301	215	11,345
1968	26	226	1,135	215	203	13,685
1969	26	261	1,317	321	248	15,335

APPENDIX XI

Industrial Employment (Standing Orders) Act, 1946

Year	No of establishments coming within the perview of the Act	Employees in establishment under col no 2	Establish ments having filed standing order in respect of all or a group employees at the beginning of the year		No of application for certification			
			No of Estt	No of employees	Pending at the commencement the year	Received during the year	Disposed of during the year	Pending at the close of the year
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1960	58	29,824	53	29,122	3	2	1	4
1961	62	30,352	54	29,309	4	4	1	7
1962	69	31,277	55	29,448	7	2	2	12
1963	79	33,104	57	29,735	12	10	6	16
1964	86	33,898	63	30,722	16	7	3	20
1965	87	34,048	66	31,399	20	1	1	20
1966	101	36,929	67	31,490	20	14	11	19
1967	114	39,903	78	32,901	19	18	12	24
1968	121	40,520	90	36,123	21	7	6	25
1969	126	41,664	96	36,855	23	6	4	25
1970	131	42,869	100	36,192	25	6	9	22

APPENDIX XII

Consumption of intoxicants in Delhi

Year	Country spirit (litres)	Opium (kilo-gram)	Bhang (kilo-gram)	FOREIGN LIQUOR			
				Imported spirits and Wine (litres)	Imported Beer (litres)	Indian made spirit (litres)	Indian made Beer (litres)
1961	6,26,603	84	41,520	58,361	2,463	3,61,810	10,07,972
1962	5,93,182	66	33,206	53,623	1,006	3,75,636	12,29,612
1963	5,37,094	51	41,682	40,143	818	4,93,080	13,92,169
1964	4,58,443	60	37,015	46,409	583	6,26,961	17,29,081
1965	4,21,177	60	30,942	52,101	878	7,85,506	19,77,009
1966	4,37,243	60	40,483	40,091	241	8,24,772	19,02,264
1967-68	4,00,000	60	19,194	64,380		14,11,592	33,74,724
1968-69	4,00,000	60	21,638	66,472	.	14,15,410	20,16,414
1969-70	4,00,000	60	10,276	53,091	..	13,81,937	14,35,653
1970-71	4,11,530	58	7,250	41,215	1,794	11,07,876	23,76,153
1971-72	3,74,587	55	1,878	56,725	387	20,96,697	28,00,233

APPENDIX XIII

Institutions/Services functioning under the Department of Social Welfare, Delhi Admn

Name of Institutions/Services	Nature of Services rendered	Number of inmates/beneficiaries as on 30-4-1972
(1)	(2)	(3)
CHILD WELFARE		
(a) *Statutory Institutions under Children Act*, 1960		
1. Observations Home for Boys, 1, Ferozeshah Kotla	Care of neglected and delinquent boys/girls pending disposal of their cases before the Children's Court-Child Welfare Board	247
2. Observation-cum-Children Home for Girls, A-38, Kirti Nagar, New Delhi	Observation home for Girls and also a Children section for committed girls under 12 years of age	128
3. Children Home, Anand Parbat, New Delhi	An institution providing care, treatment, education and vocational training to neglected boys committed to its care	495
4. Children Home for Girls, Tihar, New Delhi	Provides education and vocational training to neglected girls over 12 years of age	146
5. Home for Mentally Retarded Persons, Shahdara, Delhi	Provides specialised education, training and occupational therapy It has also an attached adult section for the care of those who on attaining adulthood, have no place to go	131
6. Home for Mentally Retarded Children (Boys) 57/11, Punjabi Bagh, New Delhi	Educable and trainable Mentally Retarded Children are provided education and training by individualised assignment	58

(1)	(2)	(3)
7. Children Home (Beggars) Narela, Delhi	Education and vocational training for children arrested with beggars and committed by the Board	176
8 Special School for Boys, Poor House, Delhi	Education training and treatment to delinquent boys committed to its care by Children Court	31
(b) *Non-Statutory Institutions/Services*		
9 Foster Home Care Services 1/7, Roop Nagar, Delhi	Placement of children in foster care to fit persons and their supervision under the Children Act, 1960.	326
10 Counselling and Guidance Bureau, 1/7, Roop Nagar, Delhi	Counselling and guidance to problem children and their parents and to guide delinquent children at the out-set.	108
11 Counselling and Guidance, Bureau, II, Andha Mughal, Delhi	Do	50
12 Traveller's Aid Bureau, Old Delhi Railway Station, Delhi	To guide and rescue children and women stranded at the Railway Station	21
13 Central Juvenile Index Ferozeshah Kotla, New Delhi	Central registry of all cases of Juveniles appearing before Board, Court and kept in the institution for reference of previous history	
14 Days Care Centre, Khajoor Road, Delhi	Care and facilities during the day to children of working mothers when they are away at work, medical attention, recreation and nutrition are provided under trained nurses, teachers and ayas.	18
15 Day Care Centre, Rana Pratap Bagh Delhi		25
16 Day Care Centre, Janak Puri, Delhi		23
17 Day Care Centre, Patel Nagar, New Delhi		23
18 Day Care Centre, Lajpat Nagar, New Delhi		22

(1)	(2)	(3)
19. Sanskar Ashram or Boys Model Town, Delhi	Education and habit formation of children of denotified tribes to wean them from unhealthy influence of their parents They attend regular community school and participate in other community programme for easy and early re-adjustment	92
20 Sanskar Ashram for Girls Model Town, Delhi	Education and habit formation of children of denotified tribes to wean them from unhealthy influence of their parents They attend regular community school and participate in other community programme for easy and early re-adjustment	38
21 Children Home for healthy Boys of Leprosy patients 1, Magzine Road, Delhi	Healthy children of leprosy patients are provided education and training in community school and they are brought up as normal healthy citizen	189
22 Children Home for Healthy Girls of Leprosy patients Gandhi Nagar, Delhi	Do	118

Prevention of Beggary

(Under Bombay Prevention of Begging Act 1959)

1. Poor House Delhi (Sewa Kutir).		
(a) Reception Centre .	In the reception centre arrested beggars, pending disposal of their cases are kept and in the certified institution, those committed for institutional care are housed	732
(b) Certified Institution .		

(1)	(2)	(3)
	Education and vocational training in different crafts with a view to their rehabilitation, Laundry, Bakery and Printing Press are main trades	
	Special Police Squad is also functioning since 1970-71 to apprehend the beggars found begging under the Bombay Prevention of Begging Act, 1959	
2 Home for able and disabled beggars (Sewa Kendra) and a separate block for Leprosy affected beggars, Narela, Delhi	Education and suitable training in crafts with a view to their rehabilitation Special medical care is also provided	468
3 Home for old infirm beggars, Narela, Delhi	Care and treatment and suitable training to the inmates	66
4 Home for able & disabled female beggars (Mahila Sadan) Mehrauli, Delhi	Do.	132
5 Home for able & disabled and diseased female beggars, Hari Nagar, New Delhi	Care and treatment and suitable training to the inmates	55
6 Home for beggars (Sewa Sadan) Tikri-Kalam Delhi	Do	394
7. Home for diseased male beggars, Kingsway Camp, Delhi	Do	Recently started.

(1)	(2)	(3)
	Probation Services	
	(*Under Probation of Offenders Act* 1958)	
Chief Probation Officer	Administrative supervision and direction to probation services	
(a) Adult Probation Unit, Tis Hazari, Delhi	The work is divided in different units. Each unit is responsible for investigation, submission of report of respective courts and supervision of probationers	377 cases for investigation
(b) Adult Probation Unit, Parliament Street, New Delhi		
(c) Probation Unit, under prevention of begging Act, Kingsway Camp, Delhi		Reports of submitted 187 cases to court, 9 cases for supervision
(d) Probation Unit under Children Act, 1960, Ferozeshah Kotla, New Delhi		
(e) Probation Unit for premature release under G C P P R		
	Physically Handicapped	
1 Govt Lady Noyce School for Deaf and Dumb Ferozeshah Kotla, New Delhi	Education upto middle standard. Separate hostels for boys and girls provided	510
2. Govt School for Blind Boys (Andh Bal Vidyalaya) Maharani Bagh, New Delhi	Education and vocational training to children with free boarding and lodging	40
3 Training-cum-Production Centre for Male, 9, South Patel Nagar, New Delhi	Providing vocational training for their rehabilitation as Book Binding, Tailoring, Cane work and Carpentary etc	57

(1)	(2)	(3)
4. Training-cum- Production Centre for Male, 3, West Patel Nagar, New Delhi.	Printing Press, Book Binding and Tailoring	17
5. Training--cum- Production Centre for Female, Green Park, New Delhi	Tailoring, Machine-knitting and Home Industries.	29
Prison Welfare Services		
	Assistance to prisoners in rehabilitation on their release counselling and guidance and other help to the family members of the prisoners during their imprisonment	26
Financial Assistance To Needy		
(a) Deserving T B patients (b) Aged and infirm persons	Rs 25 per month maximum for one year.	
(c) Education stipend to deserving children	Rs 9 per month maximum for one year.	
(d) Deserving Widows .	Maximum Rs 200 for purchase of sewing machine.	
(e) Maternity and sick cases	Rs 15 per month maximum for 6 months	
Other Institution And Services		
1 Widows Home (Mahila Ashram) 9, South Patel Nagar, N Delhi	Provides education, training and employment to widows for their rehabilitation	84
2 After Care Home for Boys Kingsway Camp, Delhi	Follow up services to those released from correctional and non-correctional institutions	55
3 After Care Home for Women, Kirti Nagar, New Delhi,	Provides education, training and employment facilities with a view to rehabilitate them economically and socially.	96

(1)	(2)	(3)
4. Home for Old and Infirm persons, Punjabi Bagh, New Delhi	Provides care, medical facilities and recreational programme.	23
Special Nutrition Programme for children.	Milk and vitaminized bread at 300 centres to children of slums and neglected localities covering 60,000 children	
Grant-in-Aid to 15 Voluntary Institutions.	Rs. 10,40,000	

CHAPTER XVIII

PUBLIC LIFE AND VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS

Political Parties And Their Hold In The District

Delhi, being the capital, is the headquarter of almost every recognised political party of an all-India character but a political party of a purely local standing has no foundation However, there operates the two-tier organisational set-up of almost all the political parties both at district and all-India level The most striking feature of these political parties is that whereas their headquarters at local level are mostly located in old Delhi, their head-quarters at all-India level are situated in New Delhi It is not possible to determine precisely the relative strength of each party in respect of its membership which keeps on changing

In the pre-independence period, the Congress, the Muslim League and the Hindu Mahasabha played a vital role in the political life of Delhi, and in India's struggle for freedom, particularly by arousing political consciousness among people and organising them Candidates belonging to these parties contested elections for the Central Legislative Assembly and represented their constituencies The post-independence era crystallized a more concrete and comprehensive growth of political parties of all-India character in Delhi After the Constitution was put into force, steps were taken to set up a popular government and quite a number of political parties with their rival claims made their appearance.

Legislative Assembly

Prior to the enforcement of the States Re-organisation Act (1956), Delhi was a Part 'C' State and had a separate Legislative Assembly of its own The strength of the Assembly based directly on adult franchise was fixed at 48 under the provisions of sub-section (2) of section (3) of the Government of Part 'C' States Act, 1951.

The following Table would show the seats won by various parties in the elections to the Legislative Assembly held in 1952.

Total No. of Seats 48

Contested : 47
Uncontested : 1

Name of Parties	Final contestants	Returned	Forfeited deposits
Congress	47	39	..
Socialist Party	6	2	3
K.M.P.P.	7		3
Communist	1		
Jan Sangh	30	4+1*	4
Other Parties & Independents	95	2	74
	186	47+1*	84

Uncontested Return *—One candidate belonging to Jan Sangh

The party-wise break up of votes polled for the Legislative Assembly in 1952 was as follows:

Name of Party	Votes polled	Percentage
Congress	2,71,812	52·94
Socialist Party	12,396	2·37
K M P P	13,646	2·61
Communist	2,591	0·19
Jan Sangh	1,14,207	21·88
Forward Block	503	0·09
Hindu Maha Sabha	6,891	1·32
Ram Rajya Parishad	849	0·16
S C F	15,592	2·98
Other Parties	307	0·05
Independents	82,972	15·89

*Uncontested seat

Electorate-votes polled

Total No of electors	7,44,668
No of constituencies	42
Total No of votes in contested constituencies	8,91,669
Total No of valid votes polled . . .	5,21,766
Percentage	58·5

The Legislative Assembly ceased functioning after the reorganisation of the States when Delhi was declared a Union Territory The Delhi Administration Act, 1966, was enacted by the Parliament with a view to providing a democratic set-up in Delhi and constituted the Metropolitan Council where majority of seats were to be filled up by persons chosen by direct election from territorial constituencies The Interim Metropolitan Council consisted of forty seven elected and nominated members This new set-up came into being on 7 September, 1966 The relative strength of parties in the elections to the Metropolitan Council is indicated by the following Table

Interim Metropolitan Council

1966	No of seats secured
Congress	35
Jan Sangh	6
Communist	1
Independent . .	1
Nominated . . .	4
Total .	47

Metropolitan Council—result of elections

Parties	1967 Elected	1967 Nominated	1967 Total	1972 Elected	1972 Nominated	1972 Total
Congress	19	2	21	44	5	49
Jan Sangh	33	2	35	5		5
Republican	2		2			
Independents	2		2	1		1
No party affiliation		1	1			
Congress (Old)				2		2
C P I				3		3
Muslim League				1		1
	56	5	61	56	5	61

Municipal Corporation

The Municipal Corporation elections in Delhi in April 1971 had brought Jan Sangh again into power with 52 seats while its nearest rival, the Congress, gained 42 seats despite its having trounced Jan Sangh in the parliamentary elections barely two months before by winning all the seven Lok Sabha seats The following Table would indicate the number of seats secured by various parties from 1958 onwards

Total No of seats	1958 80+6*	1962 80+6*	1967 100+6*	1971 100+6*
Congress	42	73	42	44
Jan Sangh	27	8	57	57
Communist	7	2	2	1
Hindu Maha Sabha	1			
S S P			1	
Republicans			1	
Congress (Old)				1
Independents & Others	9	3	3	3
	86	86	106	106

*Aldermen

Rajya Sabha

With the enforcement of the Constitution of India on 26th January 1950, Delhi was declared a Part 'C' State and was allotted one seat in Rajya Sabha The member of the Rajya Sabha representing Delhi State was elected by the elected members of

the Legislative Assembly in accordance with the system of proportional representation by means of a single transferable vote During the First General Election there was no contest, and Delhi State sent its only representative to the Council of States uncontested In 1956, the Parliament enacted the States Re-organisation Act, the main feature of which was the abolition of the existing constitutional difference between the different categories of States, i e , Part A, Part B and Part C, and the substitution thereof by two categories of the component units of the Union which were called States and Union Territories As a result of this, the Part C State of Delhi was declared as the Union Territory of Delhi and the representation of the Union Territory of Delhi in the Rajya Sabha had to be revised

The representatives of each Union Territory in the Rajya Sabha are now elected by an electoral college constituted for the purpose The members of the electoral college were directly elected on the basis of adult franchise The electoral college of the Union Territory of Delhi consisted of 80 councillors of the Delhi Municipal Corporation and ten other persons to represent the areas within the New Delhi Municipal Committee and the Delhi Cantonment Board These ten persons were chosen by direct elections on the basis of adult franchise The number of representatives to the Rajya Sabha from Delhi has been increased to three in place of one by the Constitution (7th Amendment) Act, 1956 The constitution of electoral college has changed with the passage of Delhi Administration Act of 1966 and the establishment of the Metropolitan Council in 1967 The electoral college now consists of 56 elected members of Metropolitan Council

However, during the second General Election of 1957, the representatives of Delhi to the Rajya Sabha were elected by the 48 out-going members of the Legislative Assembly constituting the electoral college Out of the three members of the Rajya Sabha from Delhi two were from the Congress and one Independent In the year 1958, a by-election was held on the death of a sitting Congress member of Rajya Sabha which was won by an independent candidate defeating its only Congress rival The position regarding the election to the Rajya Sabha was as follows

RAJYA SABHA

Members elected by an electoral college

(a) First General Election	. One seat
(b) After State Re-organisation Act, 1956 .	. Three seats

Name of the member	Party	Year of election	Year of retirement
Shri Onkar Nath	Congress	1952 1956	1956 1960
Shri S K Dey	Congress	1957 (Bye-election)	1962
Shri Mirza Ahmad Ali .	Independent	1958	1964
Shri Santosh Singh . .	Congress	1962	1968
Shri Inder Kumar Gujral	Congress	1964	1970
Miss Shanta Vasistha . . .	Congress	1960 1966	1966 1972
Shri Bhai Mahavir .	Jan Sangh	1968	1974
Shri L K Advani . . .	Jan Sangh	1970	1976
Smt Savita Behan . .	Congress	1972	1978

Lok Sabha

During the First General Election of 1951-52 the number of representatives from Delhi was four (one reserved for Scheduled Caste) But after the election, it was found that the procedure laid down in section 13 of the Representation of the People Act, 1950, for the delimitation of the constituencies did not work smoothly and hence on the recommendation of the Election Commission, the Delimitation Commission was formed by Parliament in 1952 The Delimitation Commission determined the number of seats to be allotted to Delhi in the House of People as three without reserving any seat for Scheduled Castes or Tribes The findings of the Delimitation Commission, however, had again to be drastically revised as a result of the passing of the States Re-organisation Act, 1956 Again, a new Delimitation Commission was formed and according to its final findings the Union Territory of Delhi was allotted five seats in the House of People out of which one was reserved for Scheduled Castes representative but the number of seats was again raised to seven (one for Scheduled Caste) before the Fourth General Election.

The following Table shows the Lok Sabha election results in the four General Elections and the mid-term election of 1971

Election to Lok Sabha from Delhi—Results

Total No of Seats / Name of Parties	1952			1957			1962			1967			1971		
	4			5			5			7			7		
	1 C	2 E	3 FS	C	E	FS	C	E	FS	C	E	FS	C	E	FS
1 Congress . .	4	3	.	5	5	.	5	5		7	1		7	7	.
2 K M P P .	1	1													
3 Jan Sangh . .	3			5		2	5			7	6		7		.
4 Communist				1		1	1		1						
5 Praja Socialist Party							1		1				2	N A	N A.
6 Republican							1		1	6		6	3	N A	N A.
7 Hindu Maha Sabha	.				.	.	1		1		.			.	
8 Samyukt Socialist Party.							.			2		2	1	N A	N A
9 Independents & Others	11		10	18		17	14	.	13	24		24	33	N A.	N A.

1 Contested
2 Elected
3 Security Forfeited
N A =Not Available.

The hold of political parties on Delhi is reflected by the following Table:

LOK SABHA

Years of General and Mid term (1971) elections

	1952	1957	1962	1967	1971
1 Total Votes	7,44,668	9,76,352	13,45,360	16,84,714	20,16,354
2 Valid Votes Polled	6,55,900	8,11,344	8,94,149	11,21,161	13,19,990
Name of political parties					
1 Congress	3,24,214 (49·4)	4,40,775 (54·32)	5,53,174 (50·68)	4,34,937 (38·79)	8,40,758 (64 5)
2 Jan Sangh	1,69,997 (25·9)	1,59,907 (19·72)	2,92,016 (32·66)	5,23,860 (46·72)	3,84,215 (29·5)
3 S S P/P S P		..		2,265 (0·2)	907 *1,188 (0·1)
4 Republican	.	.	28,072 (3·14)	63,706 (5·68)	2,388 (0·2)
5. Communist	.	38,236 (4·71)	19,135 (2·14)		
6 Independents & Others	1,61,689 (24·7)	1,72,426 (21·25)	,01,752 (11·38)	96,393 (8·60)	73,881 (5·7)

NOTE.—Figures in brackets indicate percentage

Newspapers And Periodicals

In the third decade of the nineteenth century, quite a few newspapers made their appearance, the first being the Urdu *Delhi Akbar* published in 1836, followed by the *Sayyed-ul-Akbar* in 1837 edited first by Syed Mohammad Khan, and later by his younger brother Sir Syed Ahmed Khan but was closed down in 1849 *Sooraj-Ool-Ukhbar*, known as the King's paper, giving news mostly about the palace, was published in Persian but had a limited circulation The *Muzhur-ool-Huq* and the *Zia-ul-Akhbar* of Sheikh Mohammed Zia-ud-Din published in 1849 were other newspapers published. The Urdu Akbar Press also issued a well produced weekly, the *Fawayud-ood-Shayukeen* (an Urdu version of the Government Gazette) The Delhi College gave a stimulus to the publication of quite a number of prominent newspapers and periodicals, for example, *Kiran-oos-Sadyn* (a newspaper dealing with current events, edited by Dhurm Narain, a senior scholar of the English Department of the College) and *Fuwayud-oon-Nazreen*, which ceased publication in 1853 Scientific and literary articles appeared in three separate magazine—the Urdu magazine, *Mohib-i-Hind*, the *Fawayud—oon-Nazreen* and *Tohfat-ool-Hadhyuq* (closed down in 1849) These newspapers and periodicals showed a fundamental lack of interest in political matters, contained scurrilous attacks on personalities, and in style were highly ornamental abounding in metaphorical expressions

The publication of newspapers and periodicals received a set back due to the Great Rebellion of 1857 because whatever then was published was thoroughly scrutinised Lord Canning's Act of June 1857 curtailed the freedom of the press but the Urdu press, when it emerged after 1857, reflected the Western influence in its writings, and dealt with historical, educational and scientific matters of interest Some of the more prominent of periodicals published from Delhi during 1853-84 were the *Sadiq-ul-Akhbar*, the *Akmal-ul-Akhbar* of Munshi Behari Lal Mushtaq (1866), the *Nasim-ul-Akhbar* (1873), the *Nurat-ul-Islam* of Maulvi Nusrat Ali (1873), the *Mufid-i-Hind* and the *Khair-Khwah-i-Hind* (1875), the *Safir-i-Hind* of Munshi Bulaqi Das (1876), the *Rekhti Akhbar* of Munshi Maha Narain (1881) and *Akhbar-un-Nisa* of Maulvi Syed Ahmed

After the First World War, the newspapers and periodicals reflected the urges and aspirations of national spirit; for example, *Vijay*, edited by Swami Shraddhanand and Shri Indra was one

such paper In 1920, Ambika Prasad Bajpai started the *Swatantra* which advocated the cause of non-co-operation and the government called upon it to deposit a security of Rs. 5000/- Swami Shraddhanand founded the *Tej* at Delhi with Deshbandhudas Gupta as its Managing Director, and Lajpat Rai established *Bande Matram* for a short duration Shri Ghanshyam Dass Birla sponsored the *Arjun* from Delhi in 1923 which was banned for seditionary activities but which re-appeared in 1938 under the name of *Vir-Arjun* The *Comrade* and the *Hamdard* edited by Mohd Ali echoed the Muslim nationalist cause, and were frequently prosecuted The *Pratap* and *Milap*, other nationalist newspapers, were published from Delhi as well Between the third and fourth decade of the present century, the following newspapers were listed as being among the most prominent, *Vir Arjun* (1934), *Hindustan* (1934), *Congress* (1940), *Hind Sansar* (Delhi) and *Navyug*, *Vishwamitra*, *Naya Hindustan* (Delhi, 1944)

Between 1931-37, quite a large number of periodicals appeared, for example in 1937 Khushtar Girami brought out *Biswin Sadi* from Delhi, and literary journals like the *Adabi Duniya*, and *Saqi* In 1939, Yusuf Dehlvi brought out the *Shama* from Delhi

The third and fourth decades of the twentieth century saw the growth and development of a number of newspapers During 1914-18, Delhi's first newspapers in English, *Delhi Mail* made a feeble start but it ceased publication in 1923 The *Hindustan Times* made its appearance in 1924, was edited by Sardar K M Pannikar, and the funds for it were provided by the Akalis and the Maharaja of Nabha As the paper was suffering financially, it was sold to Pandit Madan Mohan Malviya who financed it from donations, and from a personal loan from the Punjab National Bank It was jointly owned by Pandit Madan Mohan Malviya, Lala Lajpat Rai, Raja Narendra Nath and Shri M S Jayakar A company was formed in 1927 when Shri G D Birla became its director after purchasing some of its shares After K M Pannikar, Jairamdas Daulat Ram became the editor followed by J N Sahni till 1932 when Pothan Joseph took over the editorship The paper passed into the hands of G D Birla and in 1940 Devdas Gandhi became its editor The *Saptahik Hindustan* (Hindi Weekly) is also published since 1950 by the Hindustan Times Ltd The *Statesman* started its New Delhi edition in 1930 The *National Call* in English and the *Navyug* in Hindi changed names in 1932 under the new management as the *Indian News Chronicle* and the *Nav Bharat Times* With the death of Deshbandhu Gupta,

the *Indian News Chronicle* **was renamed as** ***Delhi Express*** Later in July, 1953, it was converted into the Delhi edition of the *Indian Express* *The Times of India* began publication from Delhi and *Navbharat Times*, its Hindi edition, also started publication from Delhi

The semi-official journals published from Delhi are The *Indian Electrical* and *Mechanical Engineers Journal* and the *Journal of the Institution of Military Engineers* Four scientific journals including the *Journal of Scientific and Industrial Research* (1942) were published by the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research, Govt of India

The Table (P No 982) shows the number of newspapers and periodicals published from Delhi until 1970

Of the 28 dailies published in Delhi in 1970, 11 are in English, seven in Hindi, nine in Urdu and one in Punjabi This number includes a few publications, which, strictly speaking, are not daily newspapers but may be classified as market reports, cyclostyled news bulletins and weather reports During 1970 of the 624 monthlies, English comes on the top with 277, Hindi 167 and Urdu, 89 A monthly in Sanskrit was also a regular feature (Table on P No 983)

Ownership

Out of 1242 newspapers published in 1970 about which information is available, 581 were owned by individuals, 283 by societies or associations, 146 by Central and States Government departments, 72 by firms and partnerships, 39 by educational institutions, 62 by joint stock companies (23 public Ltd and 39 privated Ltd), 14 by cooperative societies, 17 by political parties, 10 by international organisations and 18 by trusts The publication of newspapers by individuals since 1966 up to 1970 has increased by 202 which is symptomatic of individual initiative and increase from 13 in 1966 to 17 in 1970 in the number of papers published by political parties (Table on P No 984)

Number of Newspapers/Periodicals published periodicity-wise in Delhi

Years	1956	1961	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970
Publications							
1 Dailies	33	28	*23	*24	27	27	28
2 Tri- & Bi-Weeklies	13	9	*	*	2	2	1
3 Weeklies	114	110	158	169	180	165	192
4 Fortnightlies	48	83	79	88	110	116	116
5 Monthlies	287	422	471	518	593	587	624
6 Quarterlies	41	149	145	153	174	180	202
7 Bi-Monthlies & Halfs yearlies		..	48	54	56	61	61
8 Annuals	..	35	8	10	13	15	18
9. Other periodicals	24	.	.			..	..
TOTAL	560	836	932	1,016	1,155	1,153	1,242

*Dailies include Tri- and Bi-weeklies

Source *Press in India*, 1971, Vol I, p 342.

Number of Papers—1970

(*Language and Periodicity-wise*)

Language	Dailies	Tri & Biweeklies	Weeklies	Fortnightlies	Monthlies	Quarterlies	Bi-monthlies/Half yearlies etc	Annual	Total 1970	Total 1969
English	11		63	50	277	144	17	11	603	550
Hindi	7	1	50	33	167	21	7	2	288	268
Urdu	9		31	17	89	5	1		152	162
Punjabi	1		18	2	13	2			36	33
Bengali			3	1			1	1	6	6
Tamil			1	1	2				4	3
Marathi			1		1		1		3	3
Sindhi			1		1	1			3	4
Malayalam			1		2				2	2
Sanskrit					1	.			1	1
Telugu		.	1						1	1
Bilingual			15	11	63	16	4	3	112	93
Multilingual			6	1	7	2		1	17	13
Others			1		2	11			14	14
1970	28	1	192	116	624	202	61	18	1,242	
TOTAL 1969	27	2	165	116	587	180	61	15		1,153

Ownership of Newspapers in Delhi

Year	Government		Individual	Joint Stock Company Public Ltd	Pvt Ltd	Firm or Partnership	Trusts	Co-operative Society	Society or Association including Religious Society	Education Institution	Inter-National Orgn	Organ of Political Party	Total
	Central	State											
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1966	136	5	379	29	30	60	19	8	223	22	8	13	932
1967	135	5	467	22	30	59	14	9	231	25	8	11	1,016
1968	141	5	552	24	34	75	16	12	244	31	10	11	1,155
1969	140	5	514	24	39	64	15	11	252	38	10	11	1,152
1970	142	4	581	23	39	72	18	14	283	39	10	17	1,242

Circulation*

Language-wise circulation of newspapers and periodicals published from Delhi in 1970 is as follows English 15 39 lakhs, Hindi 14 01 lakhs, Urdu 4 74 lakhs, Punjabi 0 65 lakhs and the rest 1 93 lakhs while the total being 36 68 lakhs The largest circulation still continues to be in English There was, however, a steady and progressive increase in Hindi publications In 1970 *Nandan* (a Hindi monthly) had the largest circulation i e, 83,618 *Shama*, the Urdu monthly, had a circulation of 80,418 Two Urdu dailies the *Pratap* and the *Milap* are the best circulated Urdu dailies in India The earliest and the most popular of the newspapers in English is the *Hindustan Times*, started in 1924 having a circulation of 1,40 918 while the *Hindustan* (Hindi, 1936) had a circulation of 1,28,627 in 1970 From the point of view of humour, the *Shankar* s Weekly with its distinctive flavour has gained considerable popularity *Akashwani* published by the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting contains talks delivered on the All India Radio Among the leading periodicals in Urdu, the highest circulations is commanded by *Shama*, a weekly Urdu language press in Delhi maintains its claim to the highest circulation of all Urdu papers within the Union of India, though numerically it ranks second highest the first position being enjoyed by Uttar Pradesh

Except for a marginal decline of 1 8 per cent during the year 1966 the overall circulation of dailies in Delhi continuously improved during the last quinquennium, reaching a total of 8 17 lakh copies in 1970 The annual rate of increase was 9 8 per cent compared to 9 7% during the preceding year while the quinquennial growth rate was 30 1 per cent The share contributed by the dailies of Delhi to the total circulation of the Indian dailies was 9 8 per cent

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**Press in India*, 1971, p 184

*Miscellaneous Journals

Apart from the regular newspapers and periodicals which are covered by the definition of the term 'Newspaper' as contained in the Press and Registration of Books Act Delhi has about 378 miscellaneous publications *viz* astrological magazines, fiction periodicals, School and College magazines and other publicity journals Languagewise the number of such publications during the years 1968 to 1970 was as follows

	1968	1969	1970
English	122	121	125
Hindi	87	56	98
Urdu	52	39	38
Bilingual	74	61	70
Multilingual	40	3[illegible]	38
Others	5	6	9
	380	317	378

News Agencies

Some of the leading news and feature agencies like the Press Trust of India the U N I *Samachar Bharati Hindustan Samachar*, India Press Agency and Indian News and Feature Alliance, are located in Delhi Similarly, some of the important foreign news agencies like Reuters, Tass. (U S S R), Associated Press of America, United Press International (U S A) and Jiji Press, Tokyo, also function from Delhi The List of foreign mission publications is formidable Almost every foreign embassy or mission brings out its publication The largest number of publications are being brought out by the U S S R followed by the U S A *Soviet Bhumi* had a circulation of 1 09,392 and the *American Reporter* had of 2,50,435 in the year 1970 as against 1,12,158 and 2,08 056 respectively in 1969

**Press in India*, 1971 Page 369

Voluntary Social Service Organisations

Voluntary social service organisations have their own contribution, educational and social fields and are, in fact, a source of considerable strength to the nation The plight of the old the bereaved, the deserted, the chronic sick, the mentally ill and the illiterate draws the attention of these organisations which battle against strong resistance all round There remain large areas where these progressive forces are hardly discernible but these forces are likely to gain more strength in future There are still many organisations in Delhi which have a stronger base and are well-organised, and well conducted These days some organisations are so heavily subsidised by the Government that the character of social activities has undergone a change, and in certain cases the spirit of careerism has crept in

It would not be possible to mention all the voluntray social organisations in the text* but some of them chosen for their individuality and significance are mentioned below

Bharat Sewak Samaj (47, Theatre Communication Building, N Delhi)

Established in 1952, it is devoted to the task of social and economic reconstruction of India by mobilising public co-operation in the Five Year Plans It was sponsored by the Planning Commission in 1952 and has grown into a countrywide organisation with branches in about 260 districts in various States The Samaj has conducted 367 rural *Lok Karya Kshetra* (Community action centres) 23 Pilot welfare extension projects, 39 night shelters, 43 planning clinics and 400 publicity seminars It publishes a monthly bulletin in 15 regional languages

The activities undertaken by the Samaj are children's welfare, women's welfare, adult education, library and reading rooms, yoga health centres, milk distribution centres, occupational therapy institute and training college for the physically handicapped and mentally retarded children draftsmen's training class (or *Kala Kendra*), welfare extension project– Mehrauli No 1, public co-operation centre, local development works, major projects, slum welfare project legal aid committee supervisors-cum-accountants

*A List of the voluntary welfare organisation is given at Annexure—I

training centre, work and orientation camp, relief and asistance or *appattisewa*, national small savings campaign, youth plan clubs under *yuvak* centres, social standards committee, film shows, annual rally and co-operation and co-ordination with other agencies

In regard to children's welfare work, all centres for children, six of them in villages, under the welfare extension projects are being run There are 12 women's welfare centres of which six are run in the rural areas In adult education, two centres are being run and coaching classes in Malaviya Nagar and Kingsway Camp are conducted The library facilities are provided in Vinay Nagar, Kingsway Camp, Chooriwalan and Badarpur The Bharat Sewak Samaj actually undertook work in slum areas Under supervisors-cum-accountants training centres students were trained in the elements of civil engineering accountancy, hygienic sanitation and first-aid Work and re-orientation camp was designed to improve the employment of the educated unemployed Camps are organised for mutual discussions, training and constructive work Under social standards committee, prohibition, anti-adulteration (especially of milk) and anti-corruption drive were undertaken The Samaj has tried its best to publicize planning by organising film shows, study circles etc, in different parts of the Territory Annual rallies are held to appreciate the practical difficulties which the workers have to face All along the Delhi Territory, Bharat Sewak Samaj has been co-ordinating the official and non-official agencies in their work

The All-India Boy Scouts Association (General Head-Quarters 7, Jangpura B Extension Mathura Road New Delhi-14) helps boys to become good citizens teaches them services useful to the public and handicrafts useful to themselves and promotes their physical development and health **The Association for Moral and Social Hygiene in India** (4, Rouse Avenue, N Delhi-1) has as its object the raising of the standard of character and conduct **Bhartiya Adimjati Sewak Sangh** (Kingsway, Delhi-9) was established for the training of workers in social and other works of primitive type by encouraging research in anthropological study of the problem of the primitive tribes **Indian Adult Education Centre** (30, Netaji Subhash Marg, Delhi) is the national organisation of adult education which publishes a quarterly journal called "The Indian Journal of Adult Education", a two monthly magazine called 'Praudh Shiksha', and a monthly 'Social Education News Bulletin' **Indian Council for Child Welfare** (4-Roust Avenue, New Delhi) is the largest organisation for child welfare

The Indian Red Cross Society (1, Red Cross Road, New Delhi) was established in 1920 with the object of giving and to the sick, wounded and demobilised members of the armed forces in accordance with the terms and spirit of the Geneva Conventions With a view to granting relief to the sick Indian ex-service personnel who participated in the Second World War, the Society instituted that 'Indian Forces After Care Fund' at the headquarters towards the end of 1941 The scope of the fund was extended in 1949 so as to recruit the ex-servicemen of World War I It was further extended in 1958 to recruit the ex-servicemen of the Kashmir operations A grant from the Government of India has made it possible to initiate work in the backward areas of Tehri Garhwal of U P in 1954 which still continues Emergency relief forms an important part of Red Cross relief in India Popular health education is another important activity Two quarterly journals the *Indian Red Cross Journal* and the *Indian Junior*—are published by the Society

The Sunni Majlis-e-Auqaf (Daryaganj Delhi) Fatehpuri Public Library, a *Yatimkhana* (*Bachchon-ka-Ghar*) and Fatehpuri Muslim High School are conducted under this *Waqf* The funeral charges of the uncared people, the maintenance of mosques, and help to the poor are other important items of activity *Waqfs* operate over mosques *dargahs* graveyards and help other charitable and religious objects The *Anjuman-i-Mohafizd-i-Auqaf* professes to have as its object the restoration and preservation of *Waqf* properties, mosques and graveyards The *Anjuman-e-Haidri* New Delhi looks after *Dargah Shah-i-Mardan* and Karbala Aliganj New Delhi *Anjuman-e-Isna-Asharia* has got only one *Waqf* "Imamia Hall", Panchkuin Road, New Delhi

India Shwetamber Sthanakwasi Jain Conference, (12, Bhagat Singh Marg, New Delhi), Shree Mahavir Jain Public Library and Jain Girls School (Chandni-Chowk) are run and financed by a trust Shree Mahavir Jain Higher Secondary School at Nai Sarak is being run under the supervision of managing committee

Gurdwara Prabandhak Committee, Delhi State, (Sisganj) is a religious and charitable society, deriving its funds from public contributions and manages gurdwaras, especially Gurdwara Sisganj Chandni Chowk, Gurdwara Bangla Sahib, near Gole Post Office Gurdawara Rakabganj Sahib, New Delhi, Gurdawara Matasundari, Gurdwara Majnu-ka-Tilla, Gurdawara Nanak Pio, Gurdwara Bala Shib, Gurdwara Moti Bagh, and Gurdwara Damdama

Sahib Besides these gurdwaras, there are educational institutions, like S G T B, Khalsa College and other secondary and primary schools An eye hospital at Gurdwara Bangla Sahib is run by the Committee and residential accommodation at various gurdwaras in Delhi is offered to pilgrims Guru Nanak Vidya Bhandar Trust, founded in 1934, is running schools and is a charitable institution

Lok Kalyan Samiti. established in 1952. aims at providing civic amenities to labourers and others living in camps or in slum areas of the capital It offers medical aid to patients, imparts education and arranges literary and cultural activities **Nirmal Shiksha Kendra** is a voluntary welfare centre for the under privileged people living in the servants' quarters in the Kotah House and in the neighbouring area The **Kendra** has a primary school and an adult literacy class and also a small free dispensary **Kasturba Gandhi Rashtriya Smarak Trust** (A/24, Jangpura, New Delhi-14), founded in 1950, offers free medicines to the villagers It has another branch at Bakhtawarpur (Delhi) **Delhi Council for Social Welfare** (31 Netaji Subhash Marg, Delhi) arranges courses on child development and behaviour disorders and maintains a technical library **Bal Sahyog,** a voluntary board, which provides facilities for physical training scouting and gardening, tries to cut at the root of juvenile delinquency The **Bharatiya Orphanage Trust** (Bazar Sitaram) was established in 1905 with a view to providing shelter to the neglected and unclaimed children **Shree Mahalaxmi Udyog Shala** (50, Daryaganj) is serving the poor and imparts training in vocational trades **Navshakti Educational Society** runs a chain of nursery and primary co-educational schools and also organises recreational centres for children The foundation of **Bapu Samaj Sewak Kendra** (New Delhi) was facilitated by the Ford Foundation Trust and the Centre conducts a primary school library, children's club, family guidance clinic, etc **Bharatiya Depressed Classes League** founded in 1951 works for the removal of untouchability **Harijan Sewak Sangh** established in 1932 aims at the eradication of untouchability, and runs **pathshalas** and re-creation centres for Harijans

The Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals (Civil Lines, Delhi) **Bharat Scouts and Guides** (Regal Building, Parliament Street, New Delhi), **Bhartiya Orphanage Trust Society** (Bazar Sita Ram, Delhi), **Gandhi Smarak Harijan Shiksha Samiti** (179 Harijan Colony, Mandir Marg, New Delhi), **Harijan Sewak Sangh** (Kingsway, Delhi-9), **Indian Conference of Social Work,** Delhi State Branch (Panna Building, 2 Ansari Road Dary Ganj, Delhi), **Quaker Centre** (24, Rajpura Road, Delhi-8), **Shishu Vihar**

Vidyalaya (Arya Samaj Road, Karol Bagh) which is managed by Maratha Mitra Mandal, **Dr. Bhagwandas Memorial Trust,** (2f, Lajpat Nagar), founded in July 1959, which has 60 indoor beds, and **Rural Health Scheme Committee** (Shippovan), **Delhi Women's League,** Branch of All India Women's Conference, are other bodies engaged in reforming activities

All India Women's Conference (6, Bhagwandass Road, N Delhi) was started in 1926 and is the oldest women's welfare organisation in the country It publishes a monthly journal in English and Hindi called 'Roshni'. **Federation of University Women in India** has a branch in Delhi the object of which is to promote friendship and understanding among the University women of different nationalities **Young Women's Christian Association** (Ashoka Road New Delhi) is a Christian association with membership and programme open to all women irrespective of race, class or creed **Nari Raksha Samiti** (27, Shree Ram Road, Delhi) was founded in 1949, to help in the suppression of immoral traffic, to maintain and control rescue home for the custody and care of the rescued **Trust for Sindhi Women and Children** (B-15, Janpath Barracks New Delhi) was founded in 1948 with the object of helping poor women opening of schools and providing facilities to children and aid to poor families for the purchase of sewing machines for girls' marriages **National Council of Women in India,** founded in 1955, takes interest in welfare questions concerning women and children

ANNEXURE-I

List of voluntary Organisations/Institutions of all India character engaged in various activities of Social Welfare

Name and address of the Organisation/Institution

1 Indian Council for Child Welfare, 4-Rouse Avenue, New Delhi

2 Indian Red Cross Society, 1, Red Cross Road, New Delhi

3 Bharat Sewak Samaj, Theatre Communication Building, Con Place, New Delhi

4 Meals for Millions Association of India, 16-Talkatora Road, New Delhi

5 All India Backward Classes Federation, 44, Mohalla Ahiran, Delhi-6

6 All India Women's Conference, 6, Bhagwan Dass Road, New Delhi.

7 All India Women's Food Council, 1, Janpath, New Delhi

8 Bharatiya Adimjati Sewak Sangh, Link Road, Jhandewalan, New Delhi

9 Bharatiya Depressed Class League, 22, Dr Rajendra Prasad Road, New Delhi

10 Bharatiya Grameen Mahila Sangh, 104, Jamnagar House, New Delhi

11 Association for Moral & Social Hygiene in India, 4-Rouse Avenue, New Delhi

12 Servants of the People Society, Lajpat Bhawan, New Delhi.

13 Indian Conference of Social Workers, 9, Janpath, New Delhi

14 Hind Kusht Niwaran Sangh, 1, Red Cross Road, New Delhi.

15 All India Prohibition Council, 35 Theatre Communication Building, Connaught Place, New Delhi

16 All India Youth Conference, 3819, Mori Gate, Delhi-6

17 Gandhi Smarak Nidhi, Near Rajghat, New Delhi-1

Voluntary Institutions/Organisations for the physically and mentally handicapped

Name and address of the Institutions/Organisations

A Blind Institutions/Schools

1 Rashtriya Virjanand Andh Kanya Vidyalaya Society (Regd), New Rajinder Nagar, New Delhi

2 Blind Social Welfare Society, Panchkuin Marg New Delhi

3 Institution for the Blind, Panchkuin Marg, New Delhi

4 Industrial Home and School for Blind, Near Oberoi Inter-Continental, New Delhi

5 Blind Relief Association, 37, Theatre Communication Building, Connaught Place, New Delhi.

Name and address of the Institutions/Organisations

6 The National Association of the Instructors of the Blind, C/o School for Blind Girls, New Rajindra Nagar, New Delhi.

7 All India Blind Relief Society (Model Eye Hospital), 2-F, Lajpat Nagar, New Delhi

8 Bharat Blind School, Near Ram Lila Ground, Circular Road, Shahdara, Delhi

B Occupational Therapy Homes

1 Occupational Therapy Home for Children, 60/18, W E A , Ramjas Road, Karol Bagh, New Delhi-5

2 Jawaharlal Nehru Institute of Physical Medicines and Rehabilitation, 4-Rouse Avenue Lane, New Delhi

C Institutions/Organisations for the deaf and dumb

1 Federation of the Deaf & Dumb in India, 1-Ferozeshah Kotla, New Delhi

2 All India Deaf & Dumb Society (Deaf & Dumb Co-Op Industrial Society Ltd), 79, Kamla Market, Asaf Ali Road, New Delhi

3 Deaf & Dumb Tailoring Centre, 85, Kamla Market, New Delhi

4 Convention of the Teachers of the Deaf in India, 1, Ferozeshah Kotla, New Delhi

5 New Delhi Deaf & Dumb Society, B-239, Kotla Mubarkpur, New Delhi

D Institutions/Organisations for maladjusted children

1 Child Guidance Society, 32, Rajinder Park, Shanker Road, New Delhi

E Institutions/Organisations for old incurable & infirm persons.

1 Cheshire Home, Banarsi Dass Chandiwala Swasthya Sadan, Kalkaji, New Delhi

2 Nirmal Hirday (Home for Sick and Dying), Magazine Road, Khyber Pass, Delhi-7

3 St Mary's Home (The Institution is also licensed under the Women & Children's Licensing (Institutions) Act, 1956), 6, Rajpur Road, Delhi 7

F Residential Institutions for destitutes and neglected women & children licensed under the Women's & Children Licensing (Institutions) Act, 1956 .

1 Bhartiya Bal Sadan, Bazar Sita Ram, Delhi
2 Jain Bal Ashram, Darya Ganj, Delhi
3 Shri Digamber Jain Mahila Ashram, 2/4, Ansari Road, Darya Ganj, Delhi
4 Bachon-Ka-Ghar, Darya Ganj, Delhi
5 Fondling Home (Nagia Meternity Home) Shakti Nagar, Delhi
6 Signal Home, L-15, Green Park, New Delhi
7 Arya Anathalaya, Pataudi House, Daryaganj, Delhi
8 Vanita Vishram Ashram, Pataudi House, Daryaganj, Delhi
9 Nirmal Shishu Niketan, 12-Commissioner Lane, Delhi
10 St Anthony's Orphanage, Pahar Ganj, New Delhi
11 Bal Sahyog, Connaught Circus, New Delhi
12 Nari Niketan, Tihar, New Delhi

G Departments/Institutions working directly under the Government of India and Delhi Administration, Delhi

1 Social Welfare and Rehabilitation Directorate (Deptt of Social Welfare) Jamnagar House Hutments, New Delhi-11
2 Central Bureau of Correctional Services, (Deptt of Social Security), Wing No 7, Block No 1, R K Puram, New Delhi
3 Commissioner for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes (Govt of India), R K Puram, New Delhi
4 Harijan Welfare Board (Delhi Administration), Khyber Pass, Delhi
5. Kasturba Niketan (Govt of India), Lajpat Nagar, New Delhi

6. School & Home for Mentally Deficient Children (Govt. of India), Near Kasturba Niketan, Lajpat Nagar, New Delhi.
7. Child Guidance Clinic (Ministry of Health), 12-Jaswant Singh Road, New Delhi.

H. Voluntary Organisation of local character:

1. Delhi State Balkan Ji-Bari, 10, Theatre Communication Building, Connaught Circus, New Delhi.
2. Delhi State Council for Child Welfare, Kudsia Garden, Delhi 6.
3. Indian Social Welfare Council, Delhi State, 5, Joshi Road, N. Delhi-6
4. Lions Clubs, Ajit Mansion, Delhi.
5. Catholic Charities, Alexander Place, Gole Market, N. Delhi.
6. Bharat Sewak Samaj (Delhi Pradesh), Theatre Communication Buildings, Con. Circus, New Delhi.
7. Rotarian Club, 80, Janpath, New Delhi.
8. Nari Raksha Samiti, 27, Shri Ram Road, Delhi.
9. Hind Kusht Niwaran Sangh, C/o Superintendent, Children's Home, Shahdara, Delhi
10. Nav Jeevan Mandal, C/o Directorate of Social Welfare, Delhi Administration, Delhi.

List of the Voluntary Welfare Institutions running in the Union Territory of Delhi and aided by the Delhi Social Welfare Advisory Board:

Name and address of the Institution

1. Amrit Kaur Bal Vihar, C/o A.I W.C., 6, Bhagwandas Road, New Delhi.
2. All India Women's Conference, 6, Bhagwandas Road, New Delhi.
3. Arya Orphanage, Pataudi House, Daryaganj, Delhi-6.
4. Association for Social and Moral Hygiene, 4-Rouse Avenue, New Delhi.
5. All India Deaf and Dumb Society, 79, Kamla Market, New Delhi.

6. After Care Home for women, A-37, Kirti Nagar, New Delhi-15
7 Blind Social Welfare Society, Panchkuin Road, New Delhi.
8 Bal Sahyog, Connaught Place, New Delhi
9. Bachon-Ka-Ghar, Daryaganj, Delhi.
10 Balak Mata Centre, 526, Motia Mahal, Delhi
11 Bal Vikas Samiti, E/63, N D S E Part-1, New Delhi-3
12 Bal Rang Manch, Puspha Bhawan, Basti Arakashan, Paharganj, New Delhi.
13 Balvant Rai Mehta Vidya Bhawan, Lajpat Bhawan, Lajpat Nagar, New Delhi
14 Blind Relief Association, Kitchlew Marg, New Delhi
15 Bhartiya Grameen Mahila Sangh (Delhi Branch), 9-Janpath, New Delhi.
16 Bal Mandir, Pushpa Bhawan, Arkashan Road, Paharganj, New Delhi
17 Child Guidance School Society, 32, Rajendra Park, Shankar Road, New Delhi.
18 Delhi Council for Social Welfare, 21-Netaji Subhash Marg, Daryaganj, Delhi
19 Dr Bhagwandas Memorial Trust, 2F, Lajpat Nagar, New Delhi
20 Delhi Gandhi Smarak Nidhi, Rajghat, New Delhi
21 Gandhi Smarak Harijan Shiksha Samiti, 179, Harijan Colony, Reading Road, New Delhi
22 Delhi State Bharat Scouts and Guides, 113, Kasturba Road, Daryaganj, Delhi
23 Delhi Kannada Education Society, Lodhi Estate, New Delhi.
24 Delhi Maternity Hospital, Pusa Road, New Delhi
25 Delhi Council for Child Welfare, Qudsia Garden, Alipur Road, Delhi.
26 Delhi University Women's Association, 7, Chhatr Marg Delhi.
27. Delhi Women's League, Saraswati Bhawan, Daryaganj, Delhi
28. Delhi Women's Patient Relief Society, Lady Hardinge Sarai, New Delhi.

29. Hospital Welfare Society, Social Service Department, Irwin Hospital, New Delhi.
30. Hardinge Avenue Welfare Association, 10, Purana Kila Road, New Delhi.
31 Indian Red Cross Society, (Delhi Branch) Delhi Red Cross Bhawan, Golf Links, New Delhi.
32. Jawaharlal Nehru Institute of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation, 4, Rouse Avenue Lane, New Delhi.
33. Kasturba Gandhi National Memorial Trust, 4-Allenby Road, New Delhi.
34 Lok Kalyan Samiti, Lok Kalyan Bhawan, 11-A, Rouse Avenue, New Delhi.
35 Montessorie Education Society, C/o Lions Montessori Bal Ghar, 163, Shakti Nagar, New Delhi.
36. Mahila Shilp Kala Vidyalaya, C/o Shri Shivnath Yoga Ashram, Ramesh Nagar, New Delhi.
37 Manav Sthali Nursery School, 37, Pusa Road, New Delhi.
38. Nari Raksha Samiti, 27. Shri Ram Road, Delhi.
39 Nehru Experimental Centre, Community Centre, Indian Agricultural Research Institute, Pusa, New Delhi.
40 Nari Niketan, Tihar, New Delhi.
41 New Rajindra Nagar Ladies Association, R-512, New Rajindra Nagar, New Delhi
42 Motia Mahal Cooperative Society, 444, Motia Mahal, Delhi.
43. Occupational Therapy Home for Children, C/o 60/18, W E A. Ramjas Road, Karol Bagh, New Delhi.
44 Rural Welfare Extension Work Committee, 49, Theatre Communication Buildings, Connaught Place, New Delhi.
45 Rashtriya Virjanand Andh Kanya Vidyalaya, New Rajindra Nagar, Shankar Road, New Delhi.
46 Shri Sanatan Dharam Shishu Kendra, 6860-A-Kila Prithvi Raj Nabi Karim, Delhi.
47 Saraswati Vidyalaya, Saraswati Bhawan, Daryaganj, Delhi.
48 Shri Digamber Jain Mahila Ashram, Ghata Masjid Road, Delhi.

49. Saraswati Gandharv Vidyalaya, Saraswati Bhawan, Daryaganj, Delhi.
50. Saraswati Shishu Mandir, F-51, Desh Bandhu Gupta Market, Karol Bagh, New Delhi.
51. Teen Murti Nursery School, Keventer Lane, Sardar Patel Road, New Delhi.
52. Talimi Samaj Marka, Baradari Sher Afghan, Balimaran, Delhi.
53. Tagore Montessori School, 4833/XIII, Bara Tooti, Delhi
54. Young Women's Christian Association, 48, Janpath, New Delhi.

CHAPTER XIX

PLACES OF INTEREST

Abdur Rahim Khan-i-Khanan's Tomb

It is situated to the south-west of Humayun's tomb and about 150 feet to the south of Mathura Road The tomb contains the remains of Abdur Rahim Khan-i-Khanan, the son of Akbar's regent, Bairam Khan Abdur Rahim was born on December 17, 1556 A.D., and was hardly four years of age when his father was assassinated He, however, grew up into a fine youngman under the fostering care of Akbar who conferred on him the title of Mirza and later made him a commander of Five Thousand with the title of Khan-i-Khanan He was appointed tutor to Prince Salim and one of his daughters was given in marriage to Prince Daniyal After Akbar's death, he served under Jahangir for 21 years. He was a great scholar and a man of culture He translated the memoirs of Babur into Persian He wrote in Arabic, Persian, Turkish and Hindi and has won immortal fame on account of his fine Hindi poetry. He died in 1627 A.D.

His tomb is built of red sandstone, relieved with bands and dressings of grey stone It resembles to some extent with the tomb of Humayun for the arrangements of kiosks, double dome and the central arched recesses are almost identical The tomb of Khan-i-Khanan, in fact, shows strong traces of the Persian influence which is so marked a feature of Humayun's tomb. The tomb has been shorn of much of its glory, for, in the eighteenth century, it was stripped of much of its marble covering and stone facing. Its architectural importance is, however, great, for Shahjahan's architects evolved the Taj Mahal—a masterpiece of the builder's art—on the basis of the tradition associated with the two famous buildings—Humayun's mausoleum and the tomb of Abdur Rahim Khan-i-Khanan. Recently, it has assumed great importance On February 9, 1956, the people of Delhi assembled to pay homage to the man, who not only enriched the Hindi literature but also made valuable contributions to Urdu and Persian literatures. Inaugurating the function, the Union Minister in the Ministry of Communications paid encomiums to the famous poet who strove to achieve a synthesis of Urdu and Hindi. The celebration of his birthday has become an annual affair.

Adham Khan's Tomb

Situated on a high terrace about 400 yards west of Qutb Minar, it is popularly known as the labyrinth (*Bhul-Bhalian*). It was built by Akbar in 1562 A D, over the remains of his wet nurse, Maham Anga, and her son, Adham Khan From the architectural point of view, this tomb is of considerable importance for it marked the end of the Lodi style, which had been in vogue for nearly two centuries. It is of the octagonal Lodi style and is built of grey sandstone and rubble masonry plastered. The court is also octagonal, at each angle of which is a low round tower The tomb chamber is surrounded by a verandah, with three arches in each of the eight sides The dome crowned by a red sandstone finial, is supported on a high 16-sided drum, at each angle of which is a small minaret

Alai Darwaza

This famous gate, about 40 feet to the south-east of Qutb Minar, was built by Ala-ud-din Khalji in 1311 A D., as the southern gate to the Qutb Mosque extended by him The domed gateway leads into the court cloisters of the mosque The building is rather small for, it is only 56 feet 9 inches square externally with an internal apartment only 34 feet 6 inches in plan But it marks the zenith of the early Indo-Muslim style of architecture Cunningham declares it to be "the most beautiful specimen of Pathan architecture" ever seen by him, and Fergusson remarks that it "displays the Pathan style at its period of greatest perfection, when the Hindu masons had learned to fit their exquisite style of decorating to the forms of their foreign masters" The Alai Darwaza is indeed a gem of Indo-Islamic architecture on account of its well-built horse-shoe arches, its wealth of lace-like pleasing decoration on the exterior, its well-proportioned lineaments and its pleasing effect caused by the use of red sandstone marble

All India War Memorial

The Duke of Connaught on February 10, 1921, laid the foundation stone of an All India War Memorial (popularly known as India Gate) at the southern end of the Central Vista The place chosen was a fine spot in the centre of the Circular Prices' Park The possibility of a great Indian war memorial had been accepted as early as January, 1917. The design of the arch was approved in March, 1920. Sir Edwin Lutyens

designed the memorial in the form of a triumphal arch spanning the Kingsway (now called Rajpath), the avenue running down the centre of the Vista.

The monument has a grandeur of its own for it is 160 feet high. (The height of the arch is 138 feet, its inner height is 87 feet 6 inches and its breadth is 70 feet) The main tunnel, which bridges the processional route, is 30 feet wide The whole arch stands on a low red base It is surmounted by a great cornice, above which a series of enormous steps ascend centrally Above these is a circular stone bowl 11½ feet in diameter This was intended to be filled with burning oil on great anniversaries and other occasions so that there would be shining fire by night and a column of smoke by day On either side of the topmost step are incised the words

MCM INDIA MCM

XIV XIX

The arch commemorates the 70,000 Indian soldiers who died in World War I, while 13,516 names engraved on the arch and the foundations to right and left form a separate memorial to the British and Indian soldiers killed on or beyond the North-West Frontier The arch was completed in 1931.

Another memorial 'Amar Jawan Jyoti' has been added under the arch of India Gate on January, 26th, 1972, as the Nation's tribute to Indian jawans who died in the Indo-Pakistan war of December, 1971

The memorial consists of a base 15 feet square on which is a platform 4′-3″ in height In the centre of this platform is a pedestal 3′-2″ in height on which rests a reversed rifle with a helmet placed on its butt On all the four sides of the memorial are inscribed the words 'AMAR JAWAN' in Hindi.

At each of the four corners of the main platform on which rests the pedestal burns the eternal flame. On top of India Gate is a 4-feet high flame which burns from 7 p.m. to 11 p.m. every day

Behind the memorial are three 24-feet high masts flying the flags of each of the three Services—the Army, the Navy and the Air Force.

The memorial has a round-the-clock guard raised from the Armed Forces, each service standing guard for a week. On ceremonial occasions, all the three Services are represented

India Gate is becoming an increasingly popular haunt In addition to the fountains, which have sufficient bulbs and are a blaze of red, the adjacent canals are embroidered with fountains coming from lotus 'flowers' of various hues which make the neighbourhood extremely attractive On summer evenings, India Gate is probably the busiest recreation centre in Delhi The rush is heaviest near the war memorial but it is the environs of the Central Vista lake that present a most charming spectacle. The Boat Club attracts a large number of people. Some canoe; some just lounge in the boats with their eyes on the majesty of the Central Secretariat and Rashtrapati Bhavan in fading light.

Amir Khusro's Tomb

Amir Khusro, the famous poet, lies buried in the Dargah of Sheikh Nizamud-din. It was as a poet of Persian that Khusro made his mark It was on account of his contributions to the Persian language that he was given the title of *Tooti-e-Hind* His role in the development of Hindi literature is as outstanding as in the sphere of Persian. Some of his verses have a unique pattern for they are veritably a cocktail of two languages The first line or half a line is in Persian and the second line or half a line in Hindi; the 'jolts' and 'jerks' one experiences while reading them are not only pleasing but also have a musical touch about them. His fame has stood the test of time; his *Urs* or death anniversary is now an established annual affair A programme spread over three or four days is gone through under the auspices of Idara-i-Nizamia, headed by the local priest Accent is always on quwwalis and mushairas—in other words music and literature - the two arts which were so dear to Khusro. The people of Delhi flock in large numbers to the shrine of Nizam-ud-din Auliya to listen to the mushairas and quwwalis. The emotional abandon with which a quwwal sings, the chorus of voices repeating the burden of his song and others rhyming in with the clappings of their hands, the invariably deep religious theme of the song and, above all, the feeling of community participation that it gives to the listeners, perhaps account for its charms.

Anglican Church Of The Redemption

The church, situated on Church Road, New Delhi, was consecrated on February 15, 1931 The altar was given by the Dean and Chapter of York in commemoration of the thirteenth centenary of York Minister; and the picture at the E. end was presented by Lord and Lady Irwin as a thanksgiving for escape from an attempt to blow up their train outside New Delhi in December, 1929

Ashoka Hotel

Standing majestically 126 feet above the verdant landscape of Chanakyapuri, the Ashoka Hotel is western in concept and style It is one of the largest and tallest hotel buildings in India Standing on the summit of 22 acres of terraced rock, this magnificent building is the hotel show-piece of the capital The range of its services and amenities, its design and original artistic decorations, and the panorama which it commands, all contribute to make it into a unique building

Alai Minar

This unfinished Minar located near the Qutb Minar was planned to be built on a grand scale by Ala-ud-din Khalji so as to cast into the shade the lofty Qutb Minar But Ala-ud-din died and the project could not be completed The unfinished Minar is 80 feet high and about 254 feet in circumference

Asoka's Pillars

In order to beautify his city of Firuzabad, Firuz Tughluq removed two pillars of Asoka from Topra (near Ambala) and Meerut and installed them in Kotla Firuz Shah and the hunting box (Kushk-i-Shikar) on the Ridge respectively While the pillar at Kotla Firuz Shah has withstood the ravages of time that at the Ridge has had a chequered history During the reign of Farrukhsiyar it was thrown down by the explosion of a powder magazine and broken into five pieces In 1838, it came into the possession of Hindu Rao who made a gift of it to the Royal Society of Bengal As the removal of the heavy fragments would have been expensive, only the inscribed portion was sawn off and sent to Calcutta In 1866, the inscription portion was returned and a year later, all the broken pieces were joined together and the completed pillar erected in its present position on the Ridge not far from Hindu Rao's hospital

Azad Park (Queens Garden)

This ancient garden, north of the Delhi Town Hall and facing the Delhi Railway Station has acquired a new name Originally, it was called Jahanara or Begum Garden During the early British regime it was known as Company Bagh (some of the older folk still refer to it by that name) Later, it was dignified with the title of Queens Garden and it retained that name during the first decade of Independance Now, a portion of it has been renamed Azad Park Today, with Mahatma Gandhi's statue as its central attraction, this garden is one of the most popular in Delhi Few places in the old city can surpass its atmosphere of tranquility

The Azad Park specialises in roses, the queen of all flowers. The spacious, well-kept plots are a riot of roses bloming in intriguing designs With its green carpet of well-mowed lawns, its shaded arbours its wide variety of roses and other flowering plants, the Azad Park, though situated in the midst of the Old City's hubub, can offer restful recreation to the tired city dwellers. Formerly, its chief attraction was the magnificent Caravan Sarai built by Princess Jahanara Begum, daughter of Shahjahan and companion of his captivity Bernier considered the Sarai to be one of the finest buildings in Delhi and compared it to the Palais Royal The garden must then have been an extremely beautiful specimen of eastern pleasure retreats, and even now it is very pretty The grap arbour, with its grape vines and luscious black berries is an attractive feature of the garden's nursery

Balban's Tomb

The tomb is situated some 300 yards to the east of the mosque of Jamali, within a few minutes' walk of the Qutb Minar It is in ruin The tomb is, nevertheless, of considerable architectural importance for it marks an important stage in the evolution of the arch Whereas the arches in the buildings of Qutb-ud-din Aibak and Iltutmish were constructed by Hindu artisans according to their traditional methods, in corbelled horizontal courses, the arches in the tomb of Balban were built on true scientific basis and hence marked a great advance in construction

Bal Bhawan And National Children's Museum

This institution stands at a centrally located site of 12.5 acres of land on Kotla Road New Delhi, under the low slung roof of a sprawling building, unique in its architecture It is a recreational-cum-educational centre which provides the children experiences and opportunities that are beyond the scope of the usual academically oriented curriculum but which are vitally important to the physcial, mental and emotional growth of the child The institution's foremost loyalty is to the child It is a purposefully planned environment where the child is offered experiences through his participation in the institution's programmes and activities *viz*, dance, drama, music, literary activities, physical education etc It also promotes social contact amongst children of all classes and communities, furthers their education through visual aid and provides them opportunity for expression of creative talents

Bangla Sahib

This famous Sikh shrine, located near Gole Post Office, New Delhi was built in honour of Guru Har Kishan the eighth Guru of the Sikhs who was invited by Mirza Raja Singh of Ambhar to stay as guest in his house The guru had come to meet the Mughal Emperor Aurangzeb

While the Guru was staying at the Raja's bungalow cholera broke out in the city A large number of people suffering from the disease came to the Guru for his blessing They were given water from the well in the house The place is now called Chobacha Sahib The water is still regarded by the faithful as a cure for all diseases

Begampuri Mosque

It is situated in the village of Begampur near the Hauz Rani village It was built about 1387 A D., by Khan-i-Jahan (the Prime Minister of Firuz Tughluq) who was also responsible for the construction of some other mosques of a similar type at Delhi, *viz*, Khirki masjid the Kalan masjid and the Kali masjid The tomb is built in the severest style of the Tughluqs and is impressive only by its great size According to Sir Henry Sharp, it appears to have become the Jama Masjid of the great three walled areas, which constituted the southern city of Delhi thus probably superseding the old Quwwat-ul-Islam mosque at the Qutb

Bhairon Nath Temple

Almost obscured by thick vegetation, the ancient temple of Bhairon Nath, which adjoins the eastern wall of Purana Qila, is one of the smallest but most historic shrines in Delhi. According to tradition, it was erected shortly before the epic battle between the Pandavas and the Kauravas. It was built to house the image of Bhairon, one of the many manifestations of Lord Shiva, whom the Pandavas prayed on the eve of battle for success

Bhangi Colony

The Bahngi Colony of New Delhi is of historic importance as it is associated with the activities of Mahatma Gandhi during the hectric days of political negotiations sponsored by the Cripps Mission Gandhiji, who identified himself completely with the suffering people and particularly the Harijans. always preferred to stay in the midst of those whom he sought to serve Before 1942, he used to camp in the Harijan Basti near the University Colony, whenever he visited Delhi In 1942, he shifted his camp to New Delhi's Bhangi Colony, which acquired a new importance It has been considerably developed now. The place where the Mahatma used to conduct his prayer meeting has been turned into a red sandstone piazza with a marble dais In the corner of the piazza an 18 ft high marble column with the inset figures of three wise monekeys in bronze have been erected On top of the column is a perpetual electric flame

Bird Hospital

This hospital, located in the compound of the Jain Mandir, near Chandni Chowk, is a unique institution It has several 'wards' for the different species of birds that are looked after—pigeons, sparrows, parrots, partridges, domestic fowl and even vultures. The only animal admitted to the hospital is the rabbit, which is peaceful by nature and does no harm to the birds. The hospital does not return birds after treatment If the birds are cured they are set free on Sundays The blind and permanently crippled birds are given sanctuary in the hospital for the rest of their lives. Birds that die are cast into the Yamuna. The The partridges fall into a special category For them the hospital is a rescue-home These birds are caught in the fields by fowlers who 'draw' their wings and sell them in the bazar. Many of these birds are saved from the dinner-table by Jain merchants who buy them in bulk and take them to the hospital. Here,

their wings are treated and when fully recovered, they are taken some miles out of Delhi and let loose in the fields. Not all the birds that are discharged by the hospital fly away. Many live on top of or near the hospital. Special feeding arrangements are made for these birds on the hospital roof. This hospital, which was started some twenty five years ago, has grown into a fine institution—it is said to be the only hospital of its kind in India.

Birla House (Gandhi Sadan)

In the backyard of Birla House renamed Gandhi Sadan on Tees January Marg, New Delhi, a three foot tall stone memorial marks the spot where Mahatma Gandhi fell to an assassin's bullet on January 30, 1948 Adding to the importance of the place is the red sandstone pavilion, the walls and ceiling of which are covered with murals depicting scenes from Gandhiji's life

Buddha Jayanti Commemoration Park

This park is located in New Delhi ridge near Kushak View Cradled between rocky outcrops, emerald-green lawns gently slope away carpeting every curve of the natural contours. Trees and shrubs, associated with the life of Lord Buddha have been planted in large number A winding channel with its picturesque falls meanders through blending harmoniously with natural surroundings.

Budha's Shrine

The Government of India has donated to the Buddhist Fraternity 13 acres of enclosed land near the Qutb Minar, on the Mehrauli Road, to set up an international centre for the study and spread of Buddhism The shrine of Lord Buddha, which occupies pride of place in this growing Buddhist Colony, has important historic associations. At the high altar are ranged images of Buddha brought from different countries There is the Indian Buddha in his characteristic posture of meditation and the Burmese one, the embodiment of peace and serenity. The image of Buddha, brought from an ancient monastery of Cambodia, depicts him standing with a begging bowl in his hand while the Thai image recalls the story of the Great Renunciation The presence of images from different countries underlines the international character of the institution growing up at Mehrauli. The plan is to make it a meditation centre similar to those for which Burma is famous

Central Secretariat

The pride and glory of New Delhi are the Rashtrapati Bhavan and the two great Central Secretariat buildings which are located about 30 feet above the level of the surrounding plain upon a natural platform of quartzite rock

There was a difference of opinion among the architects regarding the plan of these buildings Sir Edwin Lutyens wanted to locate the Viceroy's House (now known as Rashtrapati Bhavan) on the brow of the Raisina Hill (i e, in the place now occupied by the Secretariat) and the Secretariat on a lower ground (now known as Vijay Chowk—formerly called the Great Place). The underlying idea of this plan was that the domed Viceroy's Palace should symbolically dominate the layout of the city and be continually visible through the length of its central processional avenue. Sir Herbert Baker, on the other hand, had a noble vision of an imperial acropolis and wanted that the Secretariat (being the nerve centre of administration) should share with the Viceroy's Palace the glory of a prominent place on the shelf. Sir Edwin agreed to the arrangement that the Secretariat should be on Raisina Hill and the Viceroy's House about 400 yards behind, on the clear understanding that the entrance area between the two blocks of the Secretariat would be so excavated as still to reveal the foundation line of the Viceroy's House to the plain below. It was not till 1915-16 that he learnt to his bitter mortification that this condition, indispensable to the success of his design would not be carried out. It was felt that the flight of steps would be inconvenient for clerks proceeding from one Secretariat to the other. Hence, it was decided to retain the ground at its natural level Thus, the underlying idea of Sir Edwin's plan was completely lost sight of in the designing of these buildings As we motor along the Rajpath (the Kingsway) from the All India War Memorial Arch we can hardly see the foundation line of the Rashtrapati Bhavan, after we have covered half the distance and have reached the crossroads, we begin to lose sight of the colonnade, as we reach the edge of Vijay Chowk, even this fades out of sight It is true that the effect is still magnificent for the dome of the Rashtrapati Bhavan (visible for miles around) is sufficient to dominate any city. But we cannot help feeling that the architect's original conception has been deliberately spoiled.

The Secretariat buildings were designed by Sir Herbert Baker and completed in 1929-30 They consist of two great blocks, North and South, which easily rank among the greatest state

office buildings in the world. These two blocks are, in the main, Italian structures. The eastern end of each block is marked by deep loggias looking out over the Central Vista. Each block is surrounded by a dome, which is 217 feet high from the lowest level of the ground, that is only 21 feet lower than the Qutb Minar. In the North Block, the dome marks an Entrance Hall, in the South Block, it surmounts a Conference Hall. Each block contains four floors The chief characteristic features of this building are the loggias and recessed gateways from which we can have a view of the fountain courts situated in the interior of the blocks. The architect relied mainly for control of temperature on the loggias and recesses thick window shutters (so frequently used in Southern Europe) and the wide *Chajja* so characteristic of Oriental buildings Architecturally, the general impression that the Secretariat buildings give, despite their mass, is of lightness and simplicity in which the best features of the modern English School of architecture seem to have combined with the use of the more delicate of the traditional Indian forms

Chandni Chowk

It is one of the most historic thoroughfares of the world It was at the height of its glory in the Mughal times, for, it occupied the pride of place among the thoroughfares of Shahjahanabad (the city built by Shahjahan), the other notable thoroughfare being the Road, which led from the Delhi Gate of Lal Qila to Jama Masjid Chandni Chowk stretched from the Lahore Gate of Lal Qila to the Fatehpuri Masjid It was 1520 yards long and 40 yards wide Through the centre, flanked by trees, flowed the canal of Ali Mardan Khan (it was filled up during the British regime) There was a tank centrally situated at a place where, later on, the Clock Tower was erected The portion of the Chandni Chowk, lying between Lal Qila and the Dariba, was called the Urdu or Military Bazar. West of the Dariba was the Phul-ki-Mandi or Flower Market up to the present day Kotwali, followed by the Jauhri or Jewellers' Bazar, and Chandni Chowk proper, the name of which was gradually extended to the whole street Chandni Chowk has not lost the glory of its historic importance

Then comes the Dariba (the street leading from the Dufferin Municipal Hospital to Chandni Chowk), which played an important part in the war of 1857. It opened upon Chandni Chowk through the Khuni Darwazah, (so called for the massacre which took place near it under the orders of Nadir Shah). It was through this gate that the 3rd British assaulting column advanced

on September 4, 1857, along the Dariba towards Jama Masjid but was driven back by stiff opposition. The Jeweller's Bazar (leading to the Dariba) has made Chandni Chowk famous throughout the world. Lt. Col. H A. Newell truly observes: "Chandni Chauk is world-famed for the skilful gold and silversmiths, who have long made it the headquarters of Indian Jewellery. To those unversed in the East and its ways it is difficult of credence that these unpretentious little shops, innocent of glitter and display, should contain gems worth a king's ransom." Further off is the famous Sikh shrine—Gurdwara Sis Ganj—occupying the most prominent position and over-looking the well-known square, the Fountain, from which a road branches off to the Delhi Railway Station Adjoining this famous shrine is the Kotwali (Police Station) which witnessed a grim tragedy in the war of 1857 In the middle of the bazar, in front of the Kotwali, were erected gallows, on which many sympathisers of the nationalist movement were hung after the British forces stormed the city of Delhi in September, 1857. These included Nawab Abdur Rehman Khan of Jhajjar and Raja Nahar Singh of Ballabhgarh On this spot were also exposed the bodies of the three royal princes, two sons and one grandson of the Emperor shot by Captain Hodson on September 22, 1857. Nearby is the Roshan-ud-daulah mosque, which witnessed even a grimmer tragedy for it was in this mosque that Nadir Shah unsheathed his sword in March, 1739, as a signal for the massacre of the people of Delhi The city was given over to plunder and massacre for several hours. Proceeding further comes the place, facing the Delhi Corporation Office, where, till recently, stood the Clock Tower This Tower, with four faces and a fine chime of bells, stood 110 feet high on the site of an ancient tank It was designed and built for the municipality by E J Martin, Executive Engineer of Delhi A portion of this Tower fell down recently, therefore, it was decided to demolish it. The Fatehpuri Masjid is the west end terminus of Chandni Chowk Chandni Chowk has witnessed many scenes—gay as well as tragic—the pomp and glory of Mughal times, the plunder and massacre by Nadir Shah's soldiers, the stately royal procession in 1911 (when the Delhi Durbar was held), a bomb thrown at Lord Hardinge, the Viceroy, while he was proceeding in State to the Red Fort on December 23 1912, and the wild tumultuous crowds surging towards the Red Fort to celebrate their independence on August 15, 1947 Apart from these historic associations, Chandni Chowk is justly famous as the commercial centre of Delhi. It is famous for its embroideries in gold and silver, ivories on which cunning carvers have spent years of toil, and jewels cut and uncut worth

a king's ransom. Although several shopping centres have sprung up all over Delhi since Independence, Chandni Chowk continues to maintain its reputation in and outside Delhi as a wholesale and retail market for consumer goods

Chiragh Delhi

This village, about eight miles south of the capital, contains the shrine of the celebrated saint Nasir-ud-din, better known as Roshan Chiragh Delhi He was a disciple of Sheikh Nizam-ud-din Auliya, whom he subsequently succeeded as the head of the Chishti saints He was a contemporary of Muhammad Tughluq. He died in 1356 A D He was buried close to the village of Khirki in the room in which he had lived, and with him were buried all that he most valued in life, namely the cloak, the staff, the cup, and the prayer-carpet, bequeathed to him by his great master. His self-denying life, and religious zeal gained him the title of Chiragh Delhi or "The Lamp of Delhi". The walls enclosing the shrine and village were built by Emperor Muhammad Shah in 1729 A fine gate in the west wall leads to the shrine between the tomb of Bahlol Lodi and a mosque The Dargah is entered from the east by a gate built by Firuz-Shah in 1373 A D The tomb chamber is surrounded by a dome of red sandstone A gold cup hangs over the grave, as in the Khizri mosque at Nizam-ud-din Nearby is the tomb of Bahlol Lodi founder of the Lodi dynasty The tomb is believed to have been erected by his son and successor, Sikandar Lodi It is an unusual shape for a tomb, having five domes over it, the details of the sandstone decoration are all Hindu Chiragh Delhi is now not a particularly attractive place but the aura of religious glory, which surrounds the name of its founder, will always make his shrine well worth a visit

Char Minar

This round tower, where criminals' heads were stuck out for display, is situated near Begampur village on the left side of the road leading to Mehrauli Round in shape, the tower is 26 feet in height with a base diameter of 21 feet and the top diameter of 18 feet and 5 inches It stands on a raised terrace about 10 feet in height Inside there is a winding staircase two and a half feet wide The walls are pierced with 225 holes — for the reception of as many human heads When thieves were executed, the custom was to cut oft their heads and stick them into these holes where they could be seen by every body According to Cunningham, heads of prisoners taken in war usually ran

up to many thousands But he believed that it was only the heads of the chiefs and principal men that were thus displayed while heads of the common soldiers were simply piled up in pyramids

Connaught Place

Named after the visit of the Duke of Connaught Connaught Place is rightly termed as the queen of Delhi's many and growing shopping centres The original Connaught Place consisting of two circles—inner and outer—has now grown bigger embracing Janpath, Baba Kharak Singh Marg, Panchkuian Road and Shankar

Market

The planning of this "glamorous show window of India" is unique in the way that, sun or rain, the customer can move from store to store through the spacious corridors without any inconvenience On both sides of the entrance of each shop, there are show windows, tastefully decorated, displaying some of the articles or fresh arrivals which the shop-keeper likes to highlight For the customers' convenience, there is huge parking space all around the circle

There is one distinct advantage of shopping here All the State emporiums besides the Cottage Industries Emporium and the Handloom House and the Khadi Gramodyog, are concentrated here These emporiums are very popular with the tourists—both Indian and foreign—for the pieces of art, decoration and gift articles which are the prestige products of the highly skilled craftsmen from various regions of the country For one general shopping, under one roof, there is the super bazar where all consumer goods are available at moderate prices

Besides being a fashionable shopping centre, Connaught Place also attracts a large number of people who go there for rest and recreation There is a good number of posh restaurants, coffee houses besides an open-air drive in restaurant where from the best Indian, Chinese and continental dishes for the affluent to dosa, vada, idli, etc, for the under privileged. are available Some of the best cinema houses are also located here where movies—both Indian and English—can be seen But the most attractive place is the Central Park with its fantastic colourful fountains, sloping lawns, subdued side lights, and the children's park People come in their hundreds, especially in summer evenings, to rest and relax in the illuminated lawns. On

occasions like Diwali, when the Connaught Place is decorated and illuminated the whole place turns into fairyland

Coronation Pillar

Hardly a few minutes' walk from the Radio Colony bus stop, there is a charming park in the middle of which stands an obelisk commemorating the site of the Delhi Durbar of 1911. This site is of great historic importance for it was here, on the smooth Bawari Plain, that Lord Lytton held a Durbar in 1877, to proclaim Queen Victoria as the Empress of India It was here again that Lord Curzon proclaimed to a Durbar, conceived on a scale of far great magnificence, the Coronation of King Edward VII A magnificent Durbar was held here again in December, 1911 On the Bawari Plain were erected two huge concentric amphitheatres, making one great irregular circle of the whole The smaller, yet the main amphitheatre, was a graceful building of carved woodwork in the Sarcenic style. In the south centre of the amphitheatre stood the royal canopy and throne Crowning the canopy was a graceful dome glistening like refined gold It was at the Durbar held here on December 12, 1911 that the King Emperor George V made the dramatic announcement of the transfer of the capital from Calcutta to Delhi The secret had been so well kept that outside the Government of India scarcely a soul knew about it Stanley Reed, the Special Correspondent of the Times of India, aptly compared this dramatic announcement to the most dramatic scene in fiction, the entry of the unknown knight into the lists described in Sir Walter Scot's novel *Ivanhoe*'

Delhi War Memorial

In a solemn and impressive ceremony at Delhi Cantonment cemetry, the President, Dr Rajendra Prasad, unveiled in November, 1957 the Delhi War Memorial in memory of 25,000 Indian soldiers and airmen who gave their lives during Word War II. A tribute in stone to the heroic men, the imposing Memorial stands on the wind-swept eminence of the cemetry overlooking a wide expanse of open country. Within its walls now rest two memorial books of names encased in a bronze and glass casket

Digamber Jain Temple

Of the innumerable Jain temples in Delhi, the oldest and most impressive is the Shree Digamber Jain Temple opposite the Red Fort at the entrance to Chandni Chowk The temple con-

forms to no particular architectural design Its easter facade as well as the gilded shrines within are quite attractive While its interior was always beautifully decorated, additions to the building have been made from time to time during the past 400 years There is an imposing gateway which gives access to a wide courtyard To the east, a flight of marble steps leads to the main shrine where the image of Lord Parasnath, the immediate predecessor of Lord Mahavira, is enshrined There are a number of other shrines of lesser deities but the image of Lord Chandaprabhu, the eignt manifestation in the Jain hierarchy of deities, stands out from among them According to the inscription on this image the temple was built in 1526 A D As the Jains show reverence for all animate creatures, it is not surprising that this temple has the only bird's hospital to be found in India Sick and injured birds are brought here and treated free of charge They are then set free An average of 1,000 birds is cared for daily at this hospital

Dilkusha

This building has fallen into ruins but its remains can still be seen near the Dak-Bungalow close to the Qutb Minar It was the country-house of Sir Thomas Metcalfe, Agent and Commissioner for Delhi It was built about 1844 It was originally a Muslim tomb but the family to which the tomb belonged sold it to Sir Thomas Metcalfe, who built a country-house, octagonal in shape and consisting of three bedrooms a dressing room a library and a small room called an oratory There were two entrance halls reached by a flight of steps from outside A tastefully laid out garden added charm and grace to the building

Dargah Ot Hazrat Nizam-ud-din Auliya

Every year in November thousands of devout pilgrims from different parts of the country went their way to the Dargah (shrine) of Hazrat Nizam-ud-din Auliya the venerated Chishti saint of the 14th century, whose name still lends sanctity to a suburb of the capital They gather at his tomb to take part in the annual Urs celebrations The Dargarh remains to this day one of the most exquisite architectural works in Delhi, despite several alterations through the centuries Situated on high ground in the growing township, which bears the saint's name, five miles south of Parliament House on the Delhi-Mathura Road, the shrine stands pre-eminent amidst a number of other historic monuments which mark the last resting place of kings and princes who wished to be buried in the precincts of the saints mausoleum

Hazrat Nizam-ud-din was endowed with a personality the like of which it is difficult to find. The President, Dr Rajendra Prasad, paid a glowing tribute to the saint at the Urs celebrations when he pointed out that the saint had shown that greatness lay not in war but in peace. The President's words spanned many troubled centuries to bring home to us the true significance of Hazrat Nizam-ud-din's lifework.

Sheikh Nizam-ud-din was the fourth in the line of the famous Chisti saints Khwaja Muin-ud-din Chisti of Ajmer was the founder of the line The second was Khwaja Qutub-ud-din Bakhtiyar Kaki, whose shrine is at Mehrauli The third was Sheikh Farid-ud-din Masud Shakar Ganj of Pak Patan Sheikh Nizam-ud-din was the disciple of Sheikh Farid-ud-din Masud Shakar Ganj of Pak Patan Sheikh Nizam-ud-din's ancestors came to India from Bokhara, a city famous as the centre of learning and religious life in Central Asia The Sheikh's grandfather, Sayyid Ali-al-Bukhari, migrated with his cousin Sayyid Khwaja Arab into India during the early Muslim invasions. They first stayed at Lahore and then settled dow at Badauni—a famous religious place at that time Both of them soon made their mark Khwaja Arab became a wealthy man while Sayyid Ahmad son of Sayyid Ali, was appointed Qazi of Badaun

Bibi Zulaikha daughter of Khwaja Arab, was married to Sayyid Ahmad Their son, destined to win fame as Hazrat Nizam-ud-din, was born on October 9, 1238 A D Nizam-ud-din was hardly five years of age when his father died He was brought up by his mother When he was sixteen years old he was sent to Delhi for higher studies He studied at Delhi for three or four years under Khwaja Shams-ud-din, one of the most distinguished scholars of his time, whom Balban later on appointed as the Wazir with the title of Shams-ul-mulk In 1257 A D, when he was twenty, he went to Pak Patan and became a disciple of Sheikh Farid-ud-din Masud Shakar Ganj After a short stay at Pak Patan he returned to Delhi and settled down to a simple life of prayer and meditation Soon his reputation spread far and wide and devoted admirers began to flock in great numbers at his simple rugged home More than one Sultan, eager to seek the saint's blessings offered costly gifts to him but he preferred the life of self-denial and abnegation That kings and nobles 'princes and princesses, were among his many followers, is clear from the fact that many members of the royal house of Delhi lie buried within the precincts of his shrine The saint fell ill when he was 89 years old and died on April 3, 1325

The first object of interest which meets the eye on entering the Dargah is the baoli or tank called *Chashma Dil Kusha*. The Jamat Khana mosque (known also as the Khizri mosque), to the west of the tomb of the saint, is an extremely fine building of the ornate early Pathan style The mosque is a landmark in the history of early Indo-Muslim architectural peculiarities of the Khajlis and the Tughluqs The central chamber is believed to have been made by Khizr Khan, son of Ala-ud-din Khalji, but the side chambers were added to it in the early Tughluq period. The walls of the side-chambers show Tughluq influence for they are made of plastered rubble instead of sandstone used in Khalji buildings On the other hand squinches are used by the Khaljis in the central chamber instead of triangular pendentives which have been provided in the side-chambers to support the domes The recessed arched pendentives ornamented with cuspings and quranic inscriptions, are of special interest and have been described by Beglar as "the most beautiful in Delhi" In addidtion to this fine mosque, the Dargah contains the tombs of some of the famous men and women of Indian history Here lie buried Jahanara Begum, daughter of Shahjahan, Atgah Khan, a foster-brother of Akbar, Mira Aziz Kokaltash, son of Atgah Khan Emperor Muhammad Shah Mirza Jahangir, son of Akbar II Zia-ud-din Barni, the well-known Muslim historian and the great poets Ghalib and Amir Khusro The tomb of Jahanara Begum is in a marble enclosure next to the Jamat Khana mosque The tomb of Atgah Khan is to the south-east of the tomb of Amir Khusro it was erected in 1566-67 A D by Mirza Aziz Kokaltash over the remains of his father Shams-ud-din Muhammad Atgah Khan Atgah Khan was a faithful servant of Humayun and rose to the rank of Vakil or Imperial Chancellor, in the reign of Akbar He was killed by Adham Khan, the youngest son of Maham Anga foster-mother of Akbar The tomb of Emperor Muhammad Shah is about ten feet east of the tomb of Jahanara Begum The enclosure contains seven graves The largest grave is of the Mughal Emperor Muhammad Shah, who died in 1748, and the one immediately to the west of it contains the remains of his wife The tomb of Mirza Jahangir is about 20 feet east of the tomb of Muhammad Shah Mirza Jahangir (the eldest son of Akbar Shah II) who died in 1821 A D in British prison at Allahabad, whence his remains were brought to Delhi to be buried near the saint's shrine

The tomb of the famous poet, Amir Khusro is about 55 feet south of the tomb of the saint Amir Khusro was born in 1253 A D. and died at a ripe old age in 1325 A D Of all

these tombs that of Agtah Khan is architecturally the most impressive. Fanchawe thought that it "must have been one of the most effective and pleasing specimens of polychromatic decorations in the whole of India". Even in its present half-ruined condition, "it will be considered by most people extremely pretty" Two hundred feet to the south-east of the tomb of Atgah Khan is the Chausath Khamba or sixty four-pillar half. The monument, so called on account of the sixty four pillars in it, is really the tomb of Mirza Aziz Kokaltash (the foster brother of Akbar) built by him during his life time In 1624 A D, he died at Ahmedabad whence his remains were brought to Delhi to be buried near the tomb of his father, Shams-ud-din Atgah Khan "The marble pillars so shiny, so smooth, which support the marble hall, have their capitals and base decorated with the most exquisite simple foliage The outer pillars are connected by marble screens ten feet high, some pieced with lattice work and others divided into panels, perfect models showing how delicate and inventive art can be The whole building is a fine example of the chaste beauty of Moghul architecture before luxury destroyed both its purity and dignity" The ornate tomb of the saint with the Jammat Khana mosque to the west of it is quite attractive The original building has been extended, embellished and renovated in the course of centuries Muhammad Tughluq built a cupola over the grave while Firuz Tughluq added arches and sandal-wood lattices In 1562 A D Faridun Khan rebuilt the tomb and in 1608-9 A D Farid Murtaza Khan supplied a lovely canopy of word inlaid with mother-o'-pearl In 1882-83, Khurshid Jah of Hyderabad built a marble balustrade around the grave The Nizam of Hyderabad gave liberal grants for the restoration of the faded paintings of the dome

Dargah Ot Khwaja Qutb-ud-Din Bakhtiyar Kaki

This Dargah the oldest of the shrines of Delhi, is situated south of the Kutb Minar in Mehrauli Khwaja Qutb-ud-din Bakhtiyar Kaki was the most famous saint of the early Muslim period of Indian history He was a Sayyid born at Ush in persia He lost his father when he was quite young His mother brought him up He visited Knorasan and Baghdad and subsequently came to India where he became a disciple of Khawja Muin-ud-din, Chishti of Ajmer Next to his teacher. Khwaja Muin-ud-din, Khwaja Qutb-ud-din was "the great chishti saint of India" He was a contemporary of Illtutmish His title of Kaki is derived from the tradition that during his fits of

abstraction (Chihal or 40 days of fasts) he was fed by the saint known as Khizr with small cakes, termed Kak. He died on November 15, 1236 A.D The reverence in which he has always been held by Muhammadans is clear from the fact that the emperors of Delhi (particularly the later Mughal emperors) not only made frequent additions to the Dargah but also chose it as their last resting place Here lie buried Shah Alam I (1707-12), Shah Alam II (1759-1806) and Akbar II (1806-37) Zabita Khan, the Rohilla chief of Saharanpur, also lies buried in the Dargah

Fakhr-UL-Masjid

The mosque, located near the Kashmir Gate, was built in 1728-29 A D, by Kaniz-i-Fatima entitled Fakhr-i-Jahan in memory of her husband, Shujaat Khan (a noble in the court of Aurangzeb) who was killed in fighting against the Afghans in 1673-74 A D

Fatehpuri Masjid

This mosque, located at the western extremity of Chandni Chowk, was built by Fatehpuri Begum, one of the Begums of Emperor Shahjahan in 1650 A D It is built of red sandstone with a single dome and lofty flanking minarets

Gandhi Memorial Museum

The museum is located at Rajghat adjacent to the offices of the Gandhi Smarak Nidhi It is a rich storehouse of material about the life and work of Gandhiji This museum is second in the chain of seven museums to be set up in various parts of the country Designed to be a 'visual biography of Gandhiji' the museum includes a picture gallery a library and an amphitheatre for cultural activities In an air-tight glass case are kept the blood-stained clothes that Gandhiji wore when he fell to an assassin's bullet

Ghalib's Tomb And Academy

The exquisitely chiselled marbled tomb of Mirza Azad-ullah Khan (popularly known as Ghalib), the noted Urdu poet, is near Chausath Khamba in Nizam-ud-din It was designed by the well-known architect, Nawab Jang Bahadur of Hyderabad and was built at a cost of Rs 15,000/-

To perpetuate the memory of Ghalib and his works a Ghalib Academy was set up in February, 1969, at a site within a few yards of his tomb in Nizamuddin The Academy has a

well equipped library, a museum containing objects belonging to Ghalib and his times, an art gallery and an auditorium. The aim of the Academy is to stimulate interest in Ghalib's literary work and thus to bring about a deeper understanding of his personality and his writings

Ghazi-Ud-Din Khan's Tomb Mosque

This picturesque 18th century mausoleum near Ajmeri Gate is a memorial to a prince, who not only built a tomb for himself but also a triple domed mosque and a red sandstone two-winged building which housed a residential college Constructed by Ghazi-ud-din Khan (eldest son of the famous Nizam-ul-mulk, who founded the Nizam dynasty of Hyderabad) it is one of the few remaining specimens of a religious endowment similar to those of the Middle Ages in Europe, comprising a place of worship, the tomb of the founder and place of instructions for students In its educational aspect, the two-winged building has had an almost continuous existence for the past 200 years Today, the Delhi College has taken the place of the original educational institution which was founded on the lines of the famed schools of Samarkand and Bokhara

Gurdwara Rakabganj

This imposing Sikh shrine, at the corner of Church Road and Pandit Pant Marg in New Delhi, contains the Samadhi of Guru Tegh Bahadur who was beheaded in Delhi in 1675 A D, by order of Aurangzeb Built on spacious grounds, the most imposing part of the Gurdwara is in the centre of the inner courtyard, where a picturesque little shrine is erected over the spot where the ashes of the Guru lie buried in two silver urns In the little room about 10 square feet some of the possessions of the Guru can be seen through broad glass windows There is a stamped gold mohur spears daggers and other weapons which he carried during his lifetime In the spacious grounds a magnificent building has been recently constructed

Gurdwara Sisganj

This famous Sikh shrine occupies a most prominent position, for, it overlooks the well-known square, the Fountain in Chandni Chowk The trunk of the banyan tree under which according to tradition Guru Tegh Bahadur, the ninth Guru of the Sikhs was beheaded in 1675 A D by an order of Emperor Aurangzeb, can still be seen within the precincts of this

Gurdwara Having failed to convert the Guru to Islam, Aurangzeb in exasperation, ordered that he should be executed in public. It is said that this immediately after the blow struck, thunder and lightning shook the square for several minutes, followed by a dust storm Under the cover of the dust storm, the headless body of the Guru was smuggled by one of his disciples to the site where Gurdwara Rakabganj now stands Gurdwara Sisganj now stands as a memorial to his martyrdom on the spot in Chandni Chowk where he was beheaded The Gurdwara is today the main Sikh shrine in Delhi not only because if its historic significance but also because it is an imposing structure with its gilded domes and artistic interior decorations, many of which depict scenes from the lives of the Gurus

Hauz Khas

This picturesque picnic spot takes its name from the tank (originally called Hauz Alai which was built by Ala-ud-din Khalji in 1305 A D The tank is said to have been closed by mesonry walls Firuz Shah Tughluq carried out extensive repairs of the tank Timur after defeating in 1398 A D the Tughluq forces led by Mallu Khan encamped at Hauz Khas Timur's historian, Sharif-ud-din Yazdi, wrote thus about this tank "Hauz Khas is a lake constructed by Firuz Shah and is so large that an arrow cannot be shot from one side to the other It is filled by rainwater in the rainy season and all the people of Delhi obtain water from it all the year round" The tank has now entirely gone dry though the stone steps are still intact Adjoining the tank are some fine buildings, the domed tomb of Firuz-Shah Tughluq being the finest of all The exterior of the tomb is plain, but the interior is fine and a certain amount of the coloured decoration of the dome still remains Another building (bordering the Hauz Khas), though in ruin, is the college built by Firuz Shah Tughluq in 1352-53 A D

Hayat Baksh Bagh

This garden in Lal Qila was laid out about 1649 A D by Shahjahan It was later on neglected but was partly restored in 1904-11 To its north and south are the stately *Sawan* and *Bhadon* pavilions of white marble richly carved

Hindu Rao Hospital

The Hindu Rao House on the Ridge (now converted into a hospital) was built in 1830 by William Fraser, Agent to the Governor-General at Delhi, as his residence Percival Spear has,

however, hazarded a guess on the basis of fresh material that it was possibly built by Sir Edward Colebrooke (who succeeded Sir Charles Met-calfe in 1828 A D, as Resident in Delhi) and that Fraser bought the house when the former left Delhi After the murder of Fraser in 1835 A D, by Shams-ud-din Khan, Nawab of Ferozepore, the house was purchased from the executors of Fraser's estate by Hindu Rao, a Maratha refugee, brother of Bija Bai (wife of Daulat Rao Sindhia of Gwalior) Hindu Rao was fond of the society of Englishmen in India, among whom he was very popular Baird Smith in his *Unfinished Memoir* wrote about him thus "The old man was a well-known member of the local society—a keen sportsman, a liberal and hospitable gentleman, of frank, bluff manners, and genial temperament" After Hindu Rao's death in 1855 A D., the Hindu Rao estate (which included a considerable area of land extending down the slope of the Ridge to the Grand Trunk Road, where at one time existed the Phus Sarai) was purchased by the family of the District Treasurer Hindu Rao's House became the headquarters of the British force in 1857 and withstood the fierce and persistent attacks launched by the nationalist forces of Delhi In 1863, the military authorities decided to acquire the estate as a sanatorium for troops in the Fort The deed of sale was executed in October, 1866 Later, the municipal water works reservoir was built in the estate close to the House itself In October 1912, the House was used as a hospital for the wealthier section of the European population Now the hospital serves the needs of the people of Delhi

Humayun's Mausoleum

It is situated opposite the village of Nizam-ud-din Auliya The route leading to it diverges from Mathura Road In approaching the mausoleum one has to cross the Bu Halima garden and its eastern gateway Straight ahead is the great pointed arch of the western gateway of Humayun's tomb-enclosure The mausoleum is located in the midst of a large square garden, screened by high walls, with gateways to the south and west. The tomb was erected by Humayun's queen, Haji Begum, in 1565 A D, at a cost of 15 lakhs of rupees, but structural evidence shows that the western enclosure wall of the tomb was erected before the Arab Sarai which was constructed in 1960-61 A D The tomb of Humayun stands in the centre of a high-walled enclosure On the west and south are two lofty tower-like gateways, which add much to the grandeur of the building. The gateways are built of grey stone ornamented with bands of

red stone and marble In the centre of the floor of the upper platform are the graves of Humayun and of the other Mughal princes Above these graves is erected the mausoleum, the centre room of which is a square of 45 yards. It is built of red sandstone and is ornamented with marble bands The form of the main body of the tomb is octagon with four short and four long sides Each of the short sides forms one side of four octagonal cornered towers The tomb is a lofty square tower, surrounded by a beautiful marble dome The dome is topped with a copper pinnacle The corner towers are two-storeyed The roof is oval, and is about 80 feet in height, and formed by the dome The tomb of Humayun has been rightly called the general dormitory of the House of Timur, for, although Akbar and his three immediate successors are buried elsewhere, no other mausoleum contains the remains of so many distinguished members of the Mughal dynasty Here are buried Haji Begum (wife of Humayun), the headless trunk of Dara Shikoh (the accomplished but unfortunate son of Shahjahan), Emperor Jahandar Shah (grandson of Aurangzeb), Farrukhsiyar (poisoned by his prime minister), Rafi-ud-darajat and Rafi-ud-daulah (who ruled only for a few months), and Alamgir II (assassinated at the instigation of his prime minister, Imad-ud-mulk) It was at this tomb that another grim tragedy took place on September 21-22, 1857, when Hodson captured the last Mughal Emperor, Bahadur Shah, his two sons and a grandson Bahadur Shah was later deported to Rangoon but his two sons and the grandson were shot by Hodson and their bodies were exposed for twenty-four hours in front of the Kotwali in Chandni Chowk

The mausoleum of Humayun has been rightly called by Wheeler "the first mature example of Mughal architecture" It is an important landmark in the history of Indian architecture Whereas the tomb of Adham Khan marks the end of the sombre Lodi style, which had been in vogue for nearly two centuries, the tomb of Humayun marks the beginning of a new tradition of ornate style, which culminated in the Taj Mahal of Agra It introduced certain features borrowed from Persia — the bulbous double dome on a high neck and the garden to adorn the surroundings of the tomb Although even earlier one finds tombs surrounded by a walled-in space it was really the Mughals who made popular the custom of placing the building in the centre of a large park-like enclosure The garden, in the centre of which stands Humayun's mausoleum, consists of paved pathways, flowered parterres, avenues of cypress trees ornamental water-courses, tanks and fountains, so characteristic of the Mughal

Garden The importance of the garden of the tomb of Humayun lies in this that "it is the earliest Mughal garden in India which still preserves in tact its original plan" Apart from the garden, which lends charm and dignity to the mausoleum, it is the bulbous dome which attracts the eye It is one of finest domes of white marble in the world and raised on a deep drum This dome is of the purest Islamic formplain, perfectly contoured, eschewing the traditional *kalasha* and surmounted only by a simple final It is in this mausoleum that the expedient of the double dome was introduced for the first time The dome is composed of two shells, an outer and an inner This feature — the dome standing on a high circular drum — was adopted in later buildings These two features — the bulbous dome and the garden in the midst of which stands the mausoleum — show distinctively the Persian influence This was mainly due to the fact that the chief architect was a Persian named Mirza Ghyas Humayun's mausoleum is distinctly Persian in style but is differentiated from Persian buildings by the free use of white marble, a material little employed in Persia, and by the abstinence from coloured tile decoration so much favoured by the Persian architects The interior of the mausoleum is made up of a group of compartments octagonal in shape the largest in the centre and a smaller one at each angle Never before in India had there been devised such a complex of rooms and corridors forming so elegant an interior arrangement There is another notable feature of the mausoleum which deserves to be mentioned According to Cunningham, the mausoleum of Humayun is an example of the first employment of towers attached to the four angles of the main building Although *chattris* surrounding the dome are found in the buildings of the Lodi period they form an important feature of the mausoleum of Humayun This important innovation was gradually improved and developed until it culminated in the minars at the Taj Mahal at Agra "The intervening links are, 1st the one-storyed towers of Itmad-ud-daulah's tomb at Agra, 2nd the two-storeyed minars seen at Sikandarah gateway and 3rd the minars at Jahangir's tomb, Lahore In all these three cases the minars were attached to the main structure, but in the Taj Mahal, they are placed at the four angles of the terrace or platform This was also an innovation in contrast to the low three inches plinth of the Afghan builders, and was perhaps inspired by the design of the tomb of Sher Shah at Sahasaram" Humayun's mausoleum is, in fact, a building of exceptional merit due to the purity and simplicity of its design, the perfection of its proportions and the judicious blending of red sandstone with marble It is an

elegant building and a great work of art for it represents a successful blending of the Persian and Indian styles The Persian style is represented by the garden, the bulbous dome, the arched alcove in the facade, the interior arrangement of corridors and the complex of rooms exhibited in this tomb Several indigenous elements can also be traced in its composition — elegant kiosks with cupolas, excellent stone masonry artistically combined with marble etc Herein lies the chief importance of this mausoleum for it represents an extraordinary example of the synthesis of two of the great building traditions of Asia — the Persian and the Indian The architectural style has rightly been defined by Percy Brown as "an Indian interpretation of a Persian conception" Apart from the mausoleum there are some buildings of historic importance — Nili Burz, tomb of Isa Khan, Arab Sarai and the Afsarwala mosque and tomb

Holy Trinity Church

This church at Turkman Gate is approached through a narrow lane, on both sides of which are buildings housing a school and a home for destitute widows, both of which are run by the Mission The church is of an unusual design It has a vaulted roof under an imposing dome Gate oil lamps are set in niches in a semi-circle above the high altar These lamps, many decades ago, beckoned the faithful to worship There is an interesting story concerning the selection of the site for this church In order to build a memorial to a pioneer priest Alexander George Maintland, the Christians collected a large sum of money and decided to consecrate a new church at Ajmeri Gate When work on the foundation began it was discovered that the church was being built over the site of a huge tank, covered over by centuries of debris It was, therefore, decided to build the church at a new site just within Turkman Gate The church celebrated its Golden Jubilee in 1955

Iltutmish's Tomb

The tomb, built in 1235 A D, is situated just outside the north-west corner of the Quwwat-ul-Islam near the Qutb Minar The interior walls are decorated with elaborate and highly finished ornament of great beauty Fergusson considers the tomb to be "one of the richest examples of Hindu art applied to Muhammadan purposes that Old Delhi affords, and is extremely beautiful, though the builders still display a certain degree of inaptness in fitting the details of their own purposes" Islamic influence is apparent — squinch arches support a domical roof; there

are elaborate carvings comprising religious texts executed in exquisite styles of *Nash* and *Kufie*, there are also varied designs of arabesques and geometric drapers. Hindu influence can also be noticed for the decoration includes the typically Hindu motifs such as the wheel-and-tassel ornament

Indian War Memorial Museum

This museum is housed in the upper room of the Naubat Khana at the Red Fort When the Indian Government was asked to assist in collecting material for the museum established in London, commemorative of World War I, it was decided by the Viceroy that in addition to contributing to the National War Memorial in London, the Indian Government should institute a memorial for India to commemorate the part taken by India in the War The War Memorial Museum was first started in the early part of 1918 The collection of trophies went on until 1923

International Dolls Museum

Located in the Nehru House on Bahadur Shah Zafar Marg, this museum was set up in the year 1965 It has the largest collection of traditional and costume dolls from over 85 countries

Iron Pillar

This pillar in the centre of the courtyard of the Quwwat-ul-Islam mosque, is a marvel of metallurgical skill which redounds to the credit of the Hindus The earliest inscription on it records the victories of King Chandra, whose identity has not yet been firmly established The general impression is that it refers to Chandragupta II Vikramaditya of the Gupta dynasty The pillar is a solid shaft of wrought iron 23 feet 8 inches in length, the shaft 20 feet 2 inches and the capital 3½ feet The diameter of the shaft increases from 12 5 inches at the top to 16 4 inches at the ground The pillar "indicates an amount of skill in the manipulation of a large mass of drought iron, which has been the marvel of all who have endeavoured to account for it It is not many years since the production of such a pillar would have been an impossibility in the largest foundries of the world, and even now there are comparatively few where a similar mass of metal could be turned out The total weight must exceed 6 tons" What is most surprising is that the pillar shows no traces of rust in spite of exposure to sun and rain for nearly fifteen hundred years The pillar is indeed an eloquent tribute to the metallurgical skill and scientific achievements of the ancient Hindus

Isa Khan's Tomb

The tomb erected in 1547 A D, is located immediately to the south of Bu Halima's garden, near the western entrance of Humayun's tomb In this tomb are buried the remains of Isa Khan Niyazi, a nobleman of influence at the courts of Sher Shah Suri and Islam Shah Enclosure, terrace, platform and mausoleum, designed on an octagonal plan, make the building a well-balanced composition The kiosks, rising above its parapet, add charm and grace to the building The angles of the pillared verandah are strengthened by the sloping buttresses, which give the whole building a pleasing appearance of strength and solidity These sloping buttresses were the final instance of the use of structural batter in the composition of buildings, which had been in vogue since the time of Firuz Shah Tughluq Herein lies the chief importance of this tomb in the history of Muslim architecture in India

Jama Masjid

This masjid, situated on a rocky eminence, a little to the south of Chandni Chowk, was built by Shahjahan at a cost of ten lakhs of rupees It is the largest mosque in India Its foundation was laid on October 6, 1650 A D, under the superintendence of Sadullah Khan, the Prime Minister, and Fazil Khan Mir-i-Saman The architect was Ustad Khalil Five thousand workmen were daily employed on it It was completed in six years The basement, on which stands the mosque proper and the superstructure generally, is 30 feet wide and 1,400 square yards in area There are three gateways to the mosque, aproached by broad flights of steps on the south, east and north sides The finest entrance is that on the east side This gateway of red sandstone, the highest and largest of all, was formerly reserved for the use of the Mughal emperors only The gateway, shaped like an irregular octagon, is an imposing three storeyed-tower It is 60 feet wide, 50 feet deep and 50 feet high The two smaller gateways are two-storeyed towers — 50 feet wide, 30 feet deep and 50 feet high The three gateways give access to an open court, which is 408 feet square and is paved with large squares of red sandstone On the west side of the court is the mosque proper (261 feet by 80 feet) It is surmounted by three white marble cupolas, with spires of gilded copper These three imposing gilt-spiked domes of white marble, inlaid with vertical stripes of black slate — rise majestically above the mosque proper and are its chief glory The central dome

is the largest and highest On the north and south sides there are two elegent tapering minarets These minarets are 130 feet high and are composed of alternate strins of white marble and red sandstone placed vertically. Each minaret has three projected galleries and 130 steps, and is surmounted by an open octagonal pavilion with a gilt-spiked dome of white marble The Jama Masjid resembles in plan the Moti Masjid of Agra but is of a larger size and has two noble minarets, which the latter lacks. The chief feature of this building is its symmetry and harmony, the lofty basement on which it is raised the three gateways, the four angle towers the frontispiece and domes, all help to produce a pleasing effect Its principal portal, though inferior to that at Fatehpur Sikri, is quite elegant The mosque is indeed one of the finest specimens of Mughal architecture "Its chief structural peculiarities are its hold treatment in red sandstone inlaid with black and white marble which impart to it a pleasing appearance, the spaciousness of it scourt which magnifies its qualities of breadth and mass, its massive piers supporting engrailled arches, its tall minarets and elegant bulbous domes and, above, all, its well proportioned structural and decorative manipulations producing a happy effect of substance and void" It is a noble edifice indeed "From the summit of graceful minarets of the Jumma Masjid the eye looks down upon a panorama which cannot be paralleled outside Imperial Rome" Such was the noble tribute paid to this great Muslim cathedral by Stanley Reed, an eminent journalist.

Jamali Kamali Masjid

This mosque located some 500 yards to south of the tomb of Muhammad Quli (situated about 300 yards to south-east of the Qutb Minar) was built in 1528/29 A D The mosque is of some importance in the history of Indo-Muslim architecture for it is an interesting example of the Lodi style, it contains many of the characteristics of its prototype (Moth-ki-Masjid) and its successor (Purana Qila masjid)

Jantar Mantar Or Observatory

It is located in Parliament Street on the left as one goes from Connaught Place to Parliament House It was built by Maharaja Sawai Jai Singh II of Jaipur (1699-1743) Jai Singh was a keen astronomer His scientific researches added lustre to his name The five astronomical observatories he erected at Delhi, Ujjain, Varanasi, Jaipur and Mathura were, according to Todd, "monuments that irradiate a dark period of Indian His-

tory". Finding the astronomical tables in use defective, he prepared a set of astronomical tables — the *Zij Muhammad Shahi*— named after the Emperor, Muhammad Shah He was the founder of a new capital, named after him, Jainagar or Jaipur, which became in his time a centre of learning This remarkable man — a keen astronomer and a good administrator — had an eventful life He was born in 1686 A D, (the year in which Newton's *Principia* was completed) and when he died in 1743, (two hundred years after Coppernicus) "his wives, concubines, and science expired with him on his funeral pyre" The Jantar Mantar contains six masonry instruments Herein lay the chief contribution of Jai Singh to the development of astronomical science, he discarded brass instruments and built massive masonry ones in their place These instruments vary in size from a few feet to 90 feet in height The *Samrat Yantra* (the supreme instrument) is the largest all these instruments It is in principle one of the simplest 'equal hour' sun dials The second instrument -- the *Jai Prakash* consisting of two complementary concave hemispheres — is located south of the *Samrat Yantra* The *Ram Yantra*, south of *Jai Prakash* consist of two large circular buildings, complementary to each other To the north-west of the *Samrat Yantra* is the *Misra Yantra* or mixed instruments, so called because one building contains four separate instruments One of these is *Niyat Chakra Yantra* a sun dial like *Samrat Yantra* On each side of it are two graduated semi-circles used for obtaining meridian altitudes The two pillars on the south-west of the *Misra Yantra* help in determining the shortest and longest day of the year for in December, one pillar casts its shadow over the other pillar while in June it does not The Observatory at Delhi was the first one built by Jai Singh and it was here that the principal observations were made which enabled Jai Singh to prepare new astronomical tables called the *Zij Muhammad Shahi* Different views are held about the date of the construction of Jantar Mantar for, according to Pandit Gokal Chand it was built in 1710 A D while Sayyid Ahmad Khan held that it was built in 1725 A D The facts seem to point to 1724 A D as the likely date of the construction of Jantar Mantar

Kalidevi Temple

Mythology and history have combined to give the shrine at Kalkaji (near Badarpur village) dedicated to goddess Kali an air of mystery, which no other temple in Delhi possesses 'Millions of years ago it is said, the gods, who dwelt in the

neighbourhood of the present temple, were terrorised by two giants and they were compelled to seek the help of Brahmah Brahmah referred the matter to the goddess Parbati, who, from her mouth, produced the goddess Kushki Devi to kill the giants. Kushki Devi attacked and slaughtered the giants But this was not the end of the trouble As the blood of the two giants fell upon the earth, thousands of giants came to life and it was with great difficulty that Kushki Devi was able to hold her own in the grim struggle against the myriads of giants Parbati came to her rescue She created from the eye-brows of Kushki Devi the goddess Kali "whose lower lip rested on the hills below and her upper lip touched the sky above" Kali Devi obtained a complete victory by drinking the blood of the slaughtered giants as it passed from their wounds Then, according to the story, Kali Devi made her abode on the fields of battle and from that time was worshipped as the chief divinity of the place It is believed that a very ancient temple lies buried under the present shrine The oldest part of the existing temple was built in 1764 A D, though the worship of Kali Devi is believed to be at least as ancient as the time of Rai Pithora In 1816 A D, Mirza Raja Kedar Nath, the Peshkar of Akbar II, added twelve outer rooms to the temple and surmounted the whole with a lofty pyramidal dome In the centre of the temple room, and screened off on three sides with red sandstone and marble railings, is the image of Kali Devi which is completely covered with brocaded cloth On the screen on the west side are two inscriptions — one in Persian and the other in Hindi — which record the names of the goddess Kali and the builder of the screen At the entrance of the temple are the figures of two tigers carved out of red sandstone and over their heads are bells which votaries ring on leaving the shrine A large trident, also of red sandstone, stands close to the tigers Day and night, a lamp fed with ghee burns before the image of the deity The popularity of this shrine has remained undiminished through the years On Tuesdays the day of the weekly mela, and on October 8, when the annual fair is held Kalkaji springs to life and colour as thousands of people come from distant places to make offerings at the shrine of Kali After the harvesting of wheat also the villagers come in large numbers to offer their newly harvested crop to the goddess People come to the shrine in palanquins drawn by camels, on carts pulled by gaily caparisoned bullocks and in tongas, buses and motor-cycle rickshaws The road leading up the hill to the temple is jammed with village elders sporting huge turbans and carrying *hookas* and women wearing flowering skirts and silver anklets.

Kalan Masjid

This mosque, near Turkman Gate, is believed to be one of the seven mosques built by Khan-i-Jahan Junan Shah, son of a father bearing the same title of Khan-i-Jahan, who was a Hindu convert and became a Prime Minister of Firuz Shah Tughluq Built in 1387 A.D., according to an inscription over its eastern entrance, this was probably the principal mosque of the city of Firuzabad With its high raised entrance flanked by a pair of columns the mosque is quite imposing

Kali Masjid Or Sanjar Masjid

This mosque, now almost in ruins, located in Nizam-ud-din, was built by Khan-i-Jahan Junan Shah the Prime Minister of Firuz Shah Tughluq, in the year 772 A H (1370-71 A D) The Kali Masjid is typical mosque of the reign of Firuz-Tughluq It has an arch and beam doorway which gives access to cloisters formed by a series of square bays, roofed by cup-shaped domes

Khan-i-Jahan Tilanganis Tomb

In this tomb is buried Khan-i-Jahan Tilangani, the premier official at the court of Firuz Tughluq He died in 1370 A D The tomb stands near the Kali or Sanjar Masjid in Nizam-ud-din Though an unpretentionous building, its importance in the history of Muslim architecture in India is nevertheless very great it introduced a new type of tomb-structure, which had a tremendous influence on the style of tomb-building in the course of the next two centuries Instead of being square in plan this tomb takes the form of an octagon This was an important innovation — it was either due to the creative genius of the Hindu builder or was borrowed from foreign sources for it resembles in many ways the Mosque of Omar in Jerusalem Whatever the source of this innovation it marked the beginning of a new phase of architectural development - the large and stately mausoleums of octagonal conformation of the Sayyid and Lodi kings in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries Thus the tomb of Khan-i-Jahan Tilangani served as a standard pattern for the royal tombs of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries

Khirki Mosque

It is situated in village Khirki It was erected about 1375 A D, by Khan-i-Jahan Junan Shah the Prime Minister of Friu-Shah Tughluq The building looks quite impressive on account

of the ingenious plan of raising the whole structure on a *tahkhana* or sub-structure of arches The roof supported on 180 columns and 60 pilasters contains nine groups of nine small domes, which together with four domes on the gateways of the central *mihrab* chamber make it into an impressive edifice

Kotla Firuz Shah

In 1354 A D, Firuz Shah Tughluq founded the city of Firuzabad No traces of its outer walls have been discovered but the city was probably a half-hexagon with the long side or base facing the Yamuna It lay along the right bank of the Yamuna for more than six miles, from Indraprastha on the south to some point north of the Kushk-i-Shikar (Hunting Palace) on the Ridge (near Pir Ghaib) It was two miles in width, extending from the Yamuna on the east to Hauz Khas on the west The city was not only large and populous but it also contained eight mosques, three palaces a hunting box, and several caravan sarais According to Shams-i-Siraj "People used to go for pleasure from Delhi to Firuzabad and from Firuzabad to Delhi in such large numbers that every *kos* of the five *kos* between the two cities swarmed with people To accommodate this great traffic there were public carriers who kept conveyances, camels and horses which were ready for hire at a settled rate"

The city spread fan-like from the palace and citadel known as Kotla Firuz Shah (situated a few hundred yards south of Delhi Gate) The palace and the citadel were provided with strong and massive ramparts, the heights of these, wherever they exist being about sixty feet The Kotla or citadel, which forms an irregular polygon on plan is now in a very ruinous condition Little is left save some of the palace walls the remains of the great mosque and Asoka's pillar, which stands on a platform, pyramidal in shape having three terraces progressively decreasing in size On each terrace there is a series of vaulted cells which surround the solid core of the structure A climb up the narrow stairway to the base of the pillar can be rewarding as from here one can get one of the finest panoramic views of the city

The pillar, popularly known as the *Lat*, is a sandstone monolith, 42 feet and 7 inches in height, 35 feet of this pillar is polished and the remainder rough The buried portion measures approximately 4 feet and 1 inch The diameter of the *Lat* is 25 3 inches at the top and 38 3 inches at the base It is said to weigh 27 tons It used to have a small golden dome

on the top of it, but that disappeared when the Marathas and Jats plundered Delhi in the eighteenth century The colour of the sandstone is pale orange, flecked with black spots In order to beautify Firuzabad, Firuz Shah Tughluq ordered two Asokan pillars to be transported from Topra (near Ambala) and Meerut to the new city The former was set up in Firuz Shah Kotla and the latter on the Ridge, where Firuz Shah had a hunting box near the present Hindu Rao hospital It was no easy task to transport and set up these huge pillars but the Indian engineers displayed considerable skill and ingenuity in carrying out these tasks Shams-i-Siraj has given a graphic account of the measures adopted for their transportation Large quantities of silk cotton were placed round the pillar, the earth at its base was removed so that it fell gently on the soft bed prepared for it The pillar was then encased in reeds and raw skins so that it might not suffer any damage It was then carried on a large carriage, especially built for the purpose The carriage had forty two wheels A strong rope was fastened to each wheel and 200 men pulled at these ropes The pillar was brought to the bank of the Yamuna Here a large number of boat had been collected 'some of which could carry 5 000 to 7 000 *man* of grain, and the least of them 2 000 *man* The column was very ingeniously transferred to these boats and was then carried to the citadel The task of setting up of the pillar was as difficult as that of transportation but it was accomplished successfully Vincent Smith was so much impressed with this engineering feat that he paid a noble tribute to the Indian engineers

The Asoka pillar is of surpassing interest on account of its particularly fine inscriptions When Firuz Shah assembled all the learned men of the day to decipher the inscriptions they were unable to do so It was only in 1837 A D, that James Prinsep was able to decipher the inscriptions as belonging to a king Piyadasi (beloved of the gods), who was later identified with Asoka This pillar has the full complement of Asoka's seven pillar edicts The pillar has echoed and re-echoed through centuries Asoka's message of peace and goodwill Another notable feature of the pillar is its gold colour which caused many critics to think that it was made of brass The Mauryan craftsmen were so skilled that they knew how to impart bright polish to common sandstone No wonder, Tom Coryat was so much impressed by the shining surface of the monolith as to think that it was made of brass Bishop Heber too fell into the same error for he believed that it was a "cast metal column" Timur was so much impressed with the pillar that he declared

that he had never seen any monument in all the numerous lands he had traversed comparable to this monolith High tribute but well deserved indeed !

The second prominent feature of Kotla is the ruined Jama Masjid On the eastern side of the mosque was the Yamuna There was a building attached to the mosque on its south side. On the north side of the mosque there was probably a bridge connecting it with the Asoka pillar The main entrance was in the northern wall while others led up from the Tehkhanas below The masjid had undoubtedly colonnades or cloisters along the inside of the walls, similar to those of Khan-i-Kahan's mosques Franklin, who saw this mosque in 1793 A D, described it was having four cloisters, the domed roofs of which were supported by two hundred and sixty stone columns, each about 16 feet in height There was an octangular dome of brick and stone in the centre of the mosque and about 25 ft in height In the centre of the court is a pit, now filled up which was either a *baoli* connected with the river front, or a sunk chamber like that of Sultan Ghari, or a shaft for the foundation of *[illegible]* bearing a record of the emperor's achievements, to which reference is made by contemporary historians Even the ruins of the mosque indicate that it must have been a building of impressive size and design The chunam with which it is covered, is believed to have been as white as marble No wonder Zia-ud-din Barni eulogised this mosque for he said that on Fridays the gathering of worshippers was such that there remained no room, either on the lower flat or on the upper storey and the courtyard Timur visited the building to offer prayers and thanksgivings He was so much impressed by the design of the building that he built a splendid mosque at Samarqand, modelled on the same arrangement by employing masons whom he took along with him from India

The royal palaces and private apartments were situated on the river front to the south of this masjid The river wall below the royal palace, and in fact, practically all along this front, was probably treated as a low roofed terrace, with an open arcaded facade looking out on to the river, and must have been a very picturesque feature of the royal citadel Narrow staircases descend at various points from the terrace to the river bed below. According to Shams-i-Siraj Afif, there were three palaces in which Firuz Shah used to sit publicly in State Of these the most famous was the Mahal-i-Angur, or Palace of Grapes.

Another notable feature of Kotla was that it has three secret underground passages According to Shams-i-Siraj Afif, these tunnels were wide enough to allow the Sultan's family to travel through it in conveyances One led straight to the river, the second connected the palace with the hunting box on the Ridge and the third and the longest went towards Qila Rai Pithora The credit for planning and executing Firuz Tughluq's buildings and works of public utility goes to Malik Ghazi Shahna (the chief architect) and Abdul Hakk, otherwise Jahir Sundhar (his deputy) They considerably added to the glory of the new city of Firuzabad, Shams-i-Siraj Afif says that "Sultan Firuz had given up residing in Delhi, and stayed at Firuzabad" Delhi, it would seem, however, still remained the capital of the kingdom, and continued to be used for State functions for, when it was necessary to hold a court, the Sultan left his devotions and proceeded to the Capital To use Lane Pool's simile, "Firozabad became the Windsor of his London" The glory of Kotla Firuz Shah has departed, for the mosque and palaces are in ruins but the 'golden pillar' of Asoka mocks at time and still continues to broadcast Asoka's message of peace and goodwill

Lakshmi Narayan Temple

This famous temple, dedicated to Lakshmi Narayan by Seth Birla is situated on Mandir Marg, not far from Gole Market It is built in the old Orissan style The main temple has the idols of Narayan (the Preserver) and Lakshmi (goddess of wealth) On either side of these images are the idols of goddess Durga and Lord Shiva The main temple is flanked by the 'Gita Bhavan' and a 'Buddhist temple' Behind the temple is a park with fountains, artificial caves, swings and sea-saws On Janamashtami — Lord Krishna's birthday — the number of devotees, who come from all parts of the country, runs into lakhs

Lal Kot

It formed the inner citadel of the fort of Rai Pithora According to Cunningham, it was built by Tomar ruler Anang Pal in 1060 A D Starting from Adham Khan's tomb and running north-westwards, the ramparts of Lal Kot can be readily seen from the Qutb Minar

Lal Qila (Red Fort)

To Shahjahan belongs the glory of having beautified Delhi with magnificent buildings — the Jama Masjid and the Mughal Palace, popularly known as Lal Qila or Red Fort — (one of

the most magnificent palaces of the world). Delhi regained its lost glory when Shahjahan, after a reign of 11 years at Agra, resolved to remove his capital to Delhi. He ordered the engineers and architects to prepare plans for a palace similar to those of Agra and Lahore The foundation stone was laid on the 12th Zilhajjah 1048 A H. (1638 A D) The construction of the buildings was begun under the superintendence of Izzat Khan Alah Vardi Khan succeeded him as 'Superintendent of Works' and he, in turn, was followed by Makramat Khan, who completed the palace in 1648 A D Other names associated with the building of the Red Fort are Ahmad and Hamid, reputed engineers of those times

The lay-out of the palace can be seen at a glance The Diwan-i-Am and its courtyard is the main central feature, and from the lesser courtyard in front of the *naqqarkhana*, branch out two main arteries running north and south, from which in their turn, lead the lesser alleys to the humbler quarters of the palace Muhammad Salih, the official historian gives an interesting account of the Fort at the time of the inauguration ceremony by Shahjahan on the 24th Rabi II, 1058 A H (the 21st year of the accession) The roofs walls, and colonnades of the Diwan-i-Am were hung with brocaded velvet from Turkey and silk from China A gorgeous canopy (especially prepared for the occasion in the royal factory at Ahmedabad), measuring 70 *gaz* by 45 *gaz* was supported by silver columns, while another splendid canopy (for the throne) was supported by golden pillars, wreathed with bands of studded gems Such was the pomp and glory of the inauguration ceremony of the Fort, which has estimated to have been built at a cost of 100 lakhs of rupees

The Fort is an irregular octagon in plan — its two long sides are on the East and West while six smaller ones are on the north and south It has a total length of some 3,000 feet and a breadth of 1,800 feet. It has a circumference of one and a half miles Facing the river the walls rise to a height of 60 feet while on the land side they are 110 feet high A ditch, 75 feet wide and 30 feet deep, runs round the walls of the Fort, except on the river face According to Bernier, the ditch was in Mughal times filled with water and stocked with fish The walls of the Fort are built of red sandstone and are covered with a succession of turrets, kiosks, domes, balconies, windows and perforated screens, which make the exterior of the Fort extremely picturesque The towers and kiosks lend charm and

grace to the walls, which glow in the soft rays of the setting Sun. Two noble gateways — Lahore Gate and Delhi Gate — give a finishing touch to the citadel, of which Delhi may well be proud The Lahore Gate facing the end of Chandni Chowk, is very imposing especially with its splendid side towers and great central arch, 41 feet in height by 24 feet The gate is protected by a barbican, which was built in the reign of Aurangzeb Its walls are 40 feet in height The wooden drawbridge of the barbican was replaced by bridges built by the Mughal Emperor Akbar II The Lahore Gate is a noble structure and is certainly a great improvement upon the Hathi Pul Gate of Akbar in the Agra Fort As originally planned, here was a garden in front of the Lahore Gate and a great square adjoining the garden This great square was the hub of activity for it was here that the Mughal nobles and officials gathered to mount guard, or attend the assembly of the Darbar-i-Am or Darbar-i-Khas The Delhi Gate of the Fort is considered to be inferior in architectural merit to the Lahore Gate, the general entrace to the Fort, yet it is also a noble structure The deeply recessed portal the lofty flanking towers and the barbican all built of the red sandstone, which glows with warmth in the soft light of sunrise and sunset, would be regarded "as unsurpassed in any country which had not a severe standard of comparison in the Lahore Gate and the Buland Darwaza of Fatehpur Sikri" The Lahore Gate gives access to the Chhatta Chauk (the vaulted arcade) referred to by Bernier It is 230 feet in length and 27 feet in width, with a central octagonal court open to the sky On each side of the arcade are 32 arched rooms This vaulted hall is considered by Fergusson to be "the noblest entrance known to any existing palace" The arched rooms were originally used as shops In the Mughal times this bazar was humming with activity "Here sat the court jewellers goldsmiths, picture painters, workers in enamel, carpet manufacturers weavers of rich silks, kincobs, fine cloths for turbans and makers of pyjama girdles ornamented with gold and silver flowers together with a thousand other beautiful and costly luxuries, adapted to the sumptuous taste of the most splendid court in the world"

The arched vestibule leads into the square (200 feet by 140 feet) and in the centre of which (on the eastern side) is a well-proportioned building It was known as the Naubat or *naqqarkhana* (music hall) The royal band played here five times daily, except on Sundays and the king's birthdays, when it played nearly all day As the *naqqarkhana* was the main gateway of the Diwan-i-Am, all visitors to the court, with the

exception of princes of the royal blood, had to dismount and proceed further on foot The Diwan-i-Am, or Hall of Public Audience, stands in the centre of a court, which was originally 540 feet by 420 feet This hall, designed in a stately manner to suit the solemn functions that were held here, is built of sandstone but was originally covered with shell plaster, polished to the smoothness and whiteness of ivory It is a colonnaded hall open on three sides and enclosed at the back Although similar in design to that of Agra it is more magnificent It is 80 feet by 40 feet The hall is divided up by columns into three aisles each of seven bays, each of the latter being formed by four pillars, some 16 feet apart which support engrailed arches ranging from the back wall to the facade of the building Nothing contributes so much to the grace of this building as the fine engrailed arches, the four clustered columns at the corners and their well-proportioned bases A significant feature of the interior of this hall was the alcove in the back wall where the emperor sat in State The Diwan-i-Am has now been shorn of its glory, for it lacks the carpets the awnings the gold and silver railings that used to lend grace to this famous hall But the richly carved and inlaid marble platform where the emperor sat in State is still there In the recess behind this marble platform can still be seen some specimens of Italian pietra-dura work One small panel at the top depicts Orpheus fiddling to wild animals it is attributed to Austin Bordeaux Even more majestic than this Hall is the Diwan-i-Khas or Hall of Private Audience (close to the river) measuring 90 feet by 67 feet Fergusson considers it "if not the most beautiful, certainly the most highly ornamented of all Shahjehan's buildings" It is a pavilion of white marble supported on pillars of the same material the whole of which are or were, richly ornamented with flowers of inlaid mosaic work of cornelian and other stones There is no doubt about it that of all the buildings in the Fort the Diwan-i-Khas is the most highly ornamented and "typical of the style of architecture in its opulent mood" It is larger and more richly embellished than the Diwan-i-Khas in the Agra Fort, though by no means so elegant in design "Engrailed arches supported on square marble piers divide it into fifteen bays Its inlaid flowers on the piers its elegant perforated tracery and its graceful multifoil arches picked out in gold and colours speak of the aesthetic taste of its builder" It is indeed a noble building The symmetry of the arches produces an effect of beauty and elegance The interior of the Hall must have been very graceful for it had a silver ceiling of flowered patterns (removed by the Marathas) and its decorations of gold and inlay work were

particularly charming No wonder it seemed to be a dream of beauty The following lines engraved on the ceiling give expression to this sentiment "If there is a paradise on the face of the earth it is this, it is this". The marble dais, which formerly stood in the Hall, is said to have supported the famous peacock throne of Shahjahan, valued at some six million sterling (removed by Nadir Shah in 1739 A D)

This building, more than any other, is associated with certain tragic events of the Mughal Empire It was here in 1739 A D, that Nadir Shah received the submission of Emperor Muhammad Shah and robbed him of his most valuable treasures, in 1757 A D Ahmad Shah Abdali looted further and among other plunder, took back with him a Mughal princess as consort, in 1788 A D, the terrible Rohilla leader, Ghulam Qadir, blinded the Emperor Shah Alam, and in 1803 A D, Lord Lake was thanked by the blind Emperor Shah Alam for delivering the tottering empire from the house of Sindhia It was here again in May, 1857, that the nationalist forces proclaimed Bahadur Shah II once more Emperor of Hindustan Again, after the capture of Delhi in September 1857 Emperor Bahadur Shah was tried here and exiled to Rangoon Thus the Diwan-i-Khas mirrors the glory as well as the tragedy of the Mughal Empire

Another building of exceptional merit is the Rang Mahal, remarkable for its richness in architectural and decorative treatment In fact it may be regarded as "the crowning jewel of Shahjahan's seraglio" The Rang Mahal, 153 feet by 69 feet, has a main central hall with small compartments at each end The central hall is divided up into fifteen bays (each twenty feet square) by means of ornamental piers In fact, it looks more like a pavilion or an elegant loggia The ceiling of the hall used to be of silver while the walls were a marvel of gilt and colour In the reign of Farrukhsiyar the ceiling of silver was taken off to supply a pressing need and was replaced by one of copper In the reign of Akbar II this was also removed and a wooden one put in its place Thus the beautiful ceiling has long since disappeared, and little of the mural painting is visible The eastern wall of this building is pierced by five windows overlooking the river Doubtless from these the favoured ladies of the Zenana could catch a glimpse of the elephant fights which took place on the sandy foreshore at the foot of the walls and of which the emperor was an interested spectator in the adjoining Mussaman Burj By far the most important feature of the hall is the marble and inlaid fountain basin in its centre Every

device was used — precious stones, carving inlay, and coloured marbles — to adorn this work of art "Despite the spoilation of its jewels, the broken centre, and the lack of dancing waters, this fountain basin is still by far the most charming of those extent in the Fort, and is perhaps only surpassed in elegance by the fountain in the Mussaman Pavilion at Agra" Even the facile-tongued Sayyid Ahmad is at a loss to find words befitting its beauty "It is easy to imagine the Emperor, wearied with the ministration of justice of bored by an audience of foreign embassies, seeking with relief the cool of the Mahall resplendent with colour and marble, and musical with the subdued murmur of the falling waters and the voices of his chosen ladies" The stream which fed this fountain basin was known as the Nahar-i-Bihisht, and formed a branch of Ali Mardan s canal, which was brought from the Yamuna some six miles above Delhi The stream fell in a rippling cascade down the marble chute in the Shah Burj Pavilion and traversed a number of stately edifices

Between Rang Mahal and the Diwan-i-Am lies a garden, one of that chain of gardens for which the Palace of Delhi is so famous and which have added so much to its attraction as a palace of residence Other notable buildings of this splendid Mughal Palace are the Musamman Burj (or Octagonal Tower), similar in design to that in the Agra Fort but without its delicate inlay work, Khwabgah (or Sleeping Room), Shah Burj (or Royal Tower) the Hammam (Royal Baths) and two small pavilions named after two monsoon months Sawan and Bhadon, below which running water with artificial illumination caused an illusion of clouds and rain The exquisite Moti Masjid (Pearl Mosque) was Aurangzeb's contribution while Hira Manzil, a small marble pavilion on the terrace facing the river was built by the last titular Emperor Bahadur Shah These are some of the important buildings of the Mughal Palace, which according to Fergusson was "the most magnificent palace in the East-- perhaps in the world" The Red Fort has now become the symbol of India's freedom for it was on its ramparts that Pandit Nehru unfurled the National Flag on August 15 1947 — a ceremony which is repeated every year amidst national rejoicings

For the first time in Asia, a sound and light spectacle (Son et Lumiere) of the Red Fort has been introduced under the auspices of the India Tourism Development Corporation It conducts two evening shows daily — one in Hindi and the other in English In fact the entire history of the historic Red Fort is re-enacted in about 50 minute's show by the clever interplay

of sound and light (spoken words, music and sound effects). The spectacle is centred around the Diwan-i-Khas, Khas Mahal, the **Rang Mahal, the Hammams, Moti Masjid**, the Monsoon pavilions in the distance and the military barracks, where the famous trial of three I N A Officers — Captains P K Saigal, Shah Nawaz Khan and G S Dhillon – was held The performance starts with the arrival of Emperor Shahjahan in Delhi and the command to build the Red Fort and the palaces, the day-to-day life during Shahjahan's reign as told by the French traveller, Francis Bernier Thereafter follows the main events that took place within the ramparts of the citadel the building of Moti Masjid by Auranzgeb, invasion of Nadir Shah, the Fort in the days of **Bahadur Shah Zafar and the** freedom struggle of 1857, the establishment of British Power Quit India Movement by Mahatma Gandhi in 1942, and the I N A trial of 1945 The programme ends with the unfurling of National Flag by the Prime Minister, Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru on 15th August, 1947

Lodi Gardens

The foundation of this famous park, called Lady Willingdon Park (popularly known as Lodi Garden), was laid by Lady Willingdon on April 9, 1936 It is situated near the Lodi Road, not far from Khan Market It contains four buildings of historical importance — the tomb of Muhammad Shah Sayyid, Bara Gumbad, Shish Gumbad and the tomb of Sikander Shah Lodi

Lodi Tomb

The tomb of Sikander Lodi is located in the southern-most side of the Lodi Garden It stands within an extensive walled enclosure, square in shape It was built in 1517-18 A D, by Ibrahim Lodi over the remains of his father Sultan Sikander Lodi No kindly star shone over the kingdom of the Lodis, who throughout their 75 years rule, had to fight their way for existence Their means were limited, and what their Mughal successors could afford by way of building a Humayun's tomb or a Taj Mahal, was certainly beyond their reach The architecture of their period has, therefore, been sometimes described as "prosaic, simple, austere and formal" Ordinary stone has gone into the making of the Lodi buildings, humble in contrast to the marble or red stone in which the Mughals delighted. The style is simple too. The Lodi buildings still have certain striking features The tomb of Sultan Sikander Lodi has a striking appearance, for it is decorated with enamelled tiles of various colours The

most important structural feature of the tomb is the double dome, which was designed to preserve the symmetry and relative proportions of the body of the building This feature was probably borrowed from Persia. Its first traces can be found in the tomb of Shihab-ud-din Taj Khan (1501 A D), locally called Bagh-i-Alam Ka Gumbad This innovation played an important part in the evolution of the Mughal style On account of its spaciousness and quasi-ornamental appearance of its enclosure, the tomb of Sikandar Lodi is regarded as a link between the fortified and austere tombs of the Tughluqs and the well planned gardens of the Mughals Of the four ancient structures that distinguish the Lodi Garden, the one nearest the main road on the south is the tomb of Muhammad Shah Sayyid (1433-43 A D) built by his son, who was eventually overpowered by Bahlol Khan Lodi, the first ruler of the Lodi dynasty The tomb—also known as Mubarak Khan ka Gumbad—consists of an octagonal chamber, some 50 feet in diameter surrounded by a verandah The sloping walls found in the earlier buildings are not seen here, the sloping masonry being confined to the buttresses, which strengthen each cover of the octagon The dome springs from a sixteen sided drum The massive arcades as well as the pavilions engirdling the dome, have a striking appearance In the Lodi Garden two structures, called Shish Gumbad and Bara Gumbad, stand close to each other The latter was constructed in 1494 A D, during the reign of Sikandar Shah Lodi Though it looks like a tomb it has no graves inside and is more like a colossal gateway to a mosque The gate, which stands on a platform furnished with arched recesses, is called Bara Gumbad on account of its lofty dome Cunningham compares this gateway with the Alai Darwaza at the Qutb, for the general plan — the dimensions, the arrangement of the openings and the pendentive construction — bears close resemblance It possesses the same stone bench (2 feet 9 inches in height and 1 feet 6 inches in breadth) round the internal walls, and similar miniature brackets at the angles of the octagon It measures 62 feet square without and 40 feet square within while the Alai Darwaza measures 56 feet 6 inches and 34 feet 6 inches respectively Its height is also greater for the total height of the building above the plain is 88 feet In contrast to the rich internal treatment of Alai Darwaza the walls of the gate are left uncarved Architecturally the gateway is of great importance — it marks a considerable advance in architecture for the lotus finial of the large dome was approaching its final form, which it eventually reached in the Mughal period The mosque, which is situated on the flank of the gateway is profusely decorated with conventional

foliage and verses from the Quran incised in plaster relieved by coloured tile work The Arabic inscriptions on the angular arches glisten almond-white in the morning sun The angle turret of the mosque resembles the Qutb Minar with its taper, its rings and the stellate form of its upper part Some critics are of the view that the mosque is older than the tomb (gateway) to which it is attached Their main argument is that the handling of the arches of the facade is very clumsy There seems to be some truth in this criticism for the design of the angle turrets on the west appears to belong to the period of Firuz Tughluq rather than Lodi On the other hand, the elaborate and plaster decoration of the facade indicates the Lodi period for cut and polychrome plaster work is an important feature of the Lodi buildings Therefore, it is better to assume this mosque to be contemporary with the tombs (of the Lodi period) around it Shish Gumbad contains a number of tombs presumably connected with the Lodi family Its interior is ornamented with the blue glazed tiles, in two shades

Recently, the Lodi Gardens have been further developed and beautified The New Delhi Municipal Committe, in collaboration with the Ford Foundation, has built an air conditioned glass house to be used as a nursery for the rare plants imported from various countries A 1000-ft long serpentic lake has also been constructed whose depth varies from seven to ten feet In the middle of the lake is a single jet fountain which rise to a height of 100 feet The lake is fed by tubewells which also irrigate the garden The banks of the lake have coloured lights

Mehrauli

The small sleepy town of Mehrauli, about a mile away from Qutb Minar, is of great historic importance for, the early Muslim rulers of India established the capital of their empire in the Qutb district The Slave kings beautified Mehrauli with fine edifices Time has stolen the splendour that was Mehrauli but one can still have a glimpse of it, if one visits the relics of the Auliya Masjid, the Jahaz Mahal the Jharna (once a picturesque spring garden) and the Shamsi tank

The tank, which was the pleasure resort of royalty, is now waterless But when it was built in 1229/30 A D, by Iltutmish it was a picturesque artificial lake, lined through with red sandstone, and covering a hundred acres of land Not a single one of these stones now remains and the silted tank barely covers

an acre but that it was a remarkable feat of engineering can still be seen even in its decay. To the Muslims this tank holds special significance on account of the story of its origin It is related that Iltutmish, intending to construct a tank in the area, was giving the matter special attention when in a dream the holy Prophet mounted on a white steed appeared and indicated to him the spot where it should be built Accompanied by the famous saint, Qutb-ud-din Bakhtiyar Kaki, the Sultan next day went to the spot and to his delight found water flowing from a hoof-shaped spring This hallowed spot became the centre of a vast tank In 1311 A D, Ala-ud-din Khalji cleared the tank and built a domed pavilion in the middle of it This pavilion stands in the centre of a platform, and consists of a domed *chhatri* supported on 12 stone pillars Under the dome is a stone slab, bearing the mark of a hoof, but not the original one, which has been removed So much has the tank shrunk now that the pavilion hardly seems to be part of it The tank was also repaired by Firuz Shah Tughluq, who found that it had been deprived of water by some miscreants, who had stopped up the channels of supply.

On the east side of the Hauz Shamsi is a fine structure of red sandstone known as the Jahaz Mahal It is constructed of grey stones and red sandstone and decorated with glazed blue coloured tiles The original purpose for which this building was constructed is not certain It is believed, however, that it was constructed by some merchants for the comfort of fakirs Near this, on the opposite side of the road, can be seen the remains of an escape channel, which once flowed from the tank to water the picturesque Jharna gardens Another historic building is the Auliya Masjid, where, according to tradition, prayers for thanksgiving for the capture of Delhi by the Muslims were offered It consists of a simple enclosure 54 feet by 36 feet, with low walls These are but a few of the interesting relics to be seen at Mehrauli

Mehrauli has now assumed importance on account of the revival of the historic Pankha (fan) Mela The inauguration of the Sair-e-Gul Faroshan on August 22, 1953, by the Prime Minister, Pandit Nehru, marks the revival of this historic fair, which had become an integral part of Delhi's cultural life during the last phase of the Mughal Empire During those days the festival was held after the monsoon rains when flower 'Pankhas' were taken in procession to the temple of Yog Maya and the Dargah of Khawaja Qutb-ud-din by Hindus and Muslims, respectively. The procession used to be led by the emperor and

the impress and members of the royal family The revival of this fair has given added charm to the sleepy town of Mehrauli. At the time of the year, when the fair is held, the area is resplendent with natural beauty, in fact the hillocks, the old monuments and the green fields together make it into a picturesque spot

Metcalfe House

This fine building on Alipore Road was built about 1830 A D, by Sir Thomas Metcalfe. Sir Thomas, younger brother of Charles Metcalfe, Resident of Delhi from 1810 to 1818 A D, and from 1823 to 1828 A D, was himself Agent and Commissioner in Delhi from 1835 to 1853 A D Charles Metcalfe had a retreat at Shalimar Gardens, north of Delhi, which his brother also used Later, however, Sir Thomas adopted a Muslim tomb near the Qutb Minar into a country residence called 'Dilkusha'

When Metcalfe House was built, Sir Thomas Metcalfe transferred all his family treasures from England to this mansion To these he added an Indian collection Many ancedotes are told about Thomas Metcalfe According to a contemporary, he had a peculiar way of scolding servants. He would send for a pair of white kid gloves "which were presented to him on a silver salver, and drawing these on with solemn dignity, he proceeded to punch gently but firmly the ear of the culprit. and then let him go — a reprimand that was entirely efficacious" The exterior of the house was very attractive for there was a splended verandah round all four sides of the house The verandah was very lofty, 20 to 30 feet wide, and had a large number of magnificent stone pillars supporting the roof It was, however, the interior of the building which excited admiration The tables made of marble looked very neat and beautiful The walls of the house were covered with the engravings of famous men and women and of historic events Silver ink-stands, paper-knives and clocks lent charm and grace to the rooms One room — in the north-east of the house — was of particular importance It was called the Napoleon Gallery for it was devoted to the memory of Napoleon Bonaparte of whom Sir Thomas was a great admirer The bookcases contained books about his life and career and there was a fine marble bust of Napoleon on a marble pedestal Another room — the library — was remarkable for the fine collection of books numbering more than twenty five thousand Sir Thomas Metcalfe used to sit in the library every afternoon after his mid-day meal. After spending his leisure in reading

he went down to the billiard room in the *Taikhana* (underground). Sir Thomas Metcalfe died in 1853, and four years later, Metcalfe House was looted and badly burnt during the revolt It was subsequently restored with some alterations For some time, it housed one of the Indian Legislative Houses Later on, the building was used by the Federal Public Service Commission and was taken over by the newly formed I A S Training School soon after independence In 1958, it was decided to move the I A S School to Mussourie This decision marks the close of another chapter in the chequered history of Metcalfe House.

Mir Dard's Grave

Not far from Turkman Gate there is a mount on which one can find traces of many graves. In one big circle there are traces of three tombs One of these is said to be the tomb of Mir Dard, the famous Urdu poet His grave lies neglected but his memory is perpetuated by a road near his grave being named Mir Dard

Momin Khan 'Momin's Grave

The grave of this famous poet is outside the walls of a graveyard behind Maulana Azad Medical College The place is called Mehdian On one side of it passes a railway line and on the other side, there is a dhobighat Some years ago a public spirited citizen erected a tombstone so that the site might not be lost, otherwise the tomb remains unnoticed behind the bushes.

Moth-ki-Masjid

It is situated about a mile to the south of Mubarakpur. It was built about 1505 A D, by Miyan Bhoiya, the Prime Minister of Sikandar Lodi It is said that Sikandar Lodi picked up a grain of *moth* lying in the Jami Masjid and gave it to his wise Prime Minister, Miyan Bhoiya The latter sowed it in his orchard and the grains it yielded were multiplied by sowing them year after year till their produce yielded a rich sum which was utilised for the construction of this mosque This mosque is the best specimen of the Lodi Style "It is the largest mosque of that age and its storeyed towers at the rear corners are decidedly more suitable adjuncts than the usual slender minarets available elsewhere Its domes are better spaced, its arched openings are of finer proportions and the combination of white marble, coloured

tiling and red sandstone, used in its construction is particularly happy ”

Mughal gardens

The Mughal gardens of Rashtrapati Bhavan were mainly designed by W R Mustoe (of the Horticulture Department), the coadjutor of Sir Edwin Lutyens The gardens are a pleasant blend of different styles The inspiration is mainly derived from the Mughal gardens but Sir Edwin Lutyens "combined that with a softening of English borders, small flower-end beds and mown lawns to provide a paradise "

The lush green turf, lovely flower-beds made in intricate geometrical pattern, the climbing vines over bowers, and spouting fountains, invest these gardens with an aura of glory. Red stone foot-paths divide the ground into squares which are a carpet of green lawns As in the typical Mughal gardens, small flowering trees and ornamental trees emphasise the general lines of the gardens Again, the gardens are like the typical Mughal gardens, for, there is an intricate system of fountains, water-channels and 'water-chutes' and tanks It is pleasant to watch the water falling from one level to another, over carved 'chutes' making a soft rippling sound A red stone pergola, covered with sweet-scented creepers, leads to the beautiful sunken circular garden at the far end, it is the crowning glory of this floral paradise At the base of several tiers of terraced flower-beds is a circular pond, the sparkling water reflecting the riot of colour all around The circular gardens are a mass of colour, especially in winter The gardens have indeed become a popular winter attraction in the capital as they are thrown open to the public for about a month every winter It is an enchanting scene, for, flowers of various hues carpet the ground as far as the eye can see and crowds of men women and children weave their own pattern as they saunter leisurely in between the sunlit flower beds The lawns look like an emerald sea and the flowers in their infinite variety and colour give the impression of a rainbow that has missed its mark in the sky A new feature in the gardens is a fish pond at the northern entrance In this circular pond, where formerly a fountain used to play, are seen over twenty varieties of exotic fresh water fish, a present from the Chinese Premier, Mr Chou-En-Lai to Pandit Nehru The streaks of sunlight coming through the circular opening above are reflected on the luminous bodies of the gold fish and its kind Swaying their board tall fins, the fishes, some of which are diaphaneous, swim placidly in the pond

Najaf Khan's Tomb

It is located in village Bibipur, to the east of the Qutb Road, about 50 feet to south-east of Aliganj Najaf Khan, entitled Zufiqar-ud-daula, was a noble at the court of Shah Alam II He came of the royal Safavi stock of Persia and his sister was married to Mirza Muhsin, the elder brother of Safdar Jang He died in 1782 A D

National Archives Of India

The fine red sandstone building of the National Archives of India, containing the old and musty records (which are invaluable links connecting the past with the present) is situated on the Janpath It is a repository of documents which are required by Government officials for reference and by students of history for research These documents, so impressive in quality and quantity, are a rich cultural heritage In fact they are in many ways the best historical material in the world It is estimated that the steel shelves of the Department cover about fourteen miles of shelf space and shelter 72,691 bound volumes and 36,44,000 unbound documents

National Gallery Of Modern Art

It is located in Jaipur House, near India Gate It started with a nucleus collection of about 60 paintings mostly by Amrita Shergil in the year 953 Since then efforts have been made to enrich the collections and to make arrangements for their suitable display and storage The Gallery of Modern Art can now claim to be a unique organisation representing all kinds of modern trends in art roughly from the year 1837 onwards

National Museum

On May 12, 1955, the Prime Minister Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru, laid the foundation stone of a three-storeyed hexagon-shaped building for the National Museum at the junction of Rajpath and Janpath The first phase of the building was completed in 1960 Till then the Museum had been located in the Durbar Hall and adjoining corridors and rooms in Rashtrapati Bhavan It was in 1945, that the Central Advisory Board of Archaeology had recommended that a National Museum be set up A committee worked out the details and thus the project of a National Museum had taken shape

The Museum has acquired a sizeable collection of about 40,000 objects worth about 50 lakhs of rupees Of these about 5,000 are paintings representing the Mughal, Rajasthani and Pahari schools Some of them are rare paintings e.g., miniatures from the Tuzuk-i-Jahangiri, Bhagavat paintings, Kishangarh paintings etc There are about 300 stone sculptures including such masterpieces as the Mathura Buddha, the Mathura Vishnu, Bull capitol from Rampurva Flying Cêlestials from Aihole etc. Of the 600 bronzes, the Museum is fortunate in possessing the Dancing Girl from Mohenjodaro, the Natesa in Chatura pose from Tiruvarangulam and about six exquisite Chola pieces In the manuscript collection there are some rare manuscripts like the Tuzuk-i-Jahangiri, Babarnama etc

National Physical Laboratory

The Laboratory is almost the first in a chain of national laboratories that have begun to spring up all over the country, symbolishing the constructive aspirations of a resurgent nation The work of the laboratory is carried out through its Division, *viz*, Weights and Measures, Applied Mechanics and Materials, Heat and Power Optics, Electricity Electronics and Sound, Industrial Physics, Low Temperature Physics and Analytical Chemistry The National Physical Laboratory, spreading over six acres, is one of the most modern laboratories in the world

National Stadium

It is situated east of the War Memorial Arch — on the central axis between the Memorial Arch and Purana Qila Originally, it was proposed to build a stadium in commemoration of Lord Irwin's viceroyalty, but it was eventually named after Lord Willingdon It can accommodate about 50 000 persons Asian games were held here in 1951 Folk dances are held here annually

Nehru Memorial Museum

To the south of the Rashtrapati Bhavan in New Delhi stands a large mansion popularly known as Teen Murti House Built in 1929-30 as part of Imperial Delhi, it was the official residence of the British Commander-in-Chief in India After the departure of the last British incumbent of this office in 1948, the house became the official residence of independent India's first Prime Minister, Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru, who lived here for 16 long years until his death in May, 1964 During his

long stewardship of the government of free India, Teen Murti House was associated with many momentous developments, it became the centre of the movement for the country's regeneration and its economic and social reconstruction The mansion came to be virtually identified with Pandit Nehru's name and one could hardly think of this house without him

Soon after his death, the Government of India decided to dedicate Teen Murti House to the memory of Jawaharlal Nehru and to convert it into a memorial museum and library The museum was formally inaugurated on November 14, 1964, by the President of India, Dr S Radhakrishnan

The Nehru Memorial Museum and Library, which has functioned as an autonomous organisation since April 1, 1966, has three main objectives the maintenance of a memorial museum, the maintenance of a library of modern India and the promotion of original research in modern Indian history with special reference to the Nehru era

The museum has been developed basically as a personalia museum providing an intimate glimpse of Nehru's many-sided personality Some of the rooms in the building like Nehru's bedroom, drawingroom and the study have been preserved as they were at the time of his death In a room on the ground floor his office in the Ministry of External Affairs has been reconstructed and equipped with the furniture and other articles he was using A number of mementoes, objects, manuscripts and copies of extracts of his "Will and Testament" in all Indian languages are on display Also on view are many gifts which Jawaharlal Nehru received in India and from various foreign countries On a granite rock, which stands in the front lawn of Teen Murti House, is inscribed Jawaharlal's "Tryst with Destiny" speech in Hindi and English

In addition to permanent exhibits, arrangements are made from time to time to hold temporary exhibitions on special occasions depicting different facets of his life and various aspects of the history of India's struggle for independence

The library located in western wing of the house has been designed as a research library on modern Indian history Its resources cover all aspects of the history of India from early nineteenth century with special emphasis on the nationalis movement The printed materials acquired for the library include

books, pamphlets, newspapers, periodicals and other publications. At present its holdings consist of 30,000 books and an impressive collection of old Indian newspapers A special collection of books on and by Jawaharlal Nehru consists of over 600 titles in fourteen Indian and thirty foreign languages

The library is also acquiring papers and records of various non-government organisations, associations and societies and papers and correspondence of emient Indian leaders who distinguished themselves in any field of national activity. Among the collections of manuscript material and records acquired so far, are the archives of the All-India Congress Committee, various Pradesh Congress Committees, Indian States Peoples' Conference and the private papers of several distinguished Indian leaders, besides the invaluable collection of the papers of Motilal Nehru and Jawaharlal Nehru To provide scholars with all the source material at one central place a project has also been undertaken for the acquisition of microfilm copies of manuscript material relating to modern India available abroad Among such acquisitions are the microfilms of the private papers of Governor-General and Secretaries of State and others who were connected with the British Indian Administration

A library of photographs also exists in Teen Murti House. It is particularly rich in rare photographs of Indian leaders and of the significant phases of the nationalist movement The collection is available for exhibitions, illustration of publications and production of television programmes and documentary films.

The library's resources are open to all scholars engaged in study and research in the field of modern Indian history A scheme of research fellowships has also been introduced to promote research by competent scholars With the object of encouraging collaboration among scholars and exchange of ideas among them, lectures and seminars are also held at Teen Murti House The Nehru Memorial Museum & Library has developed since its inception as an active centre of research in the field of modern Indian history

New Delhi

The transfer of the capital of India from Calcutta to Delhi was announced at the Delhi Durbar on December 12, 1911 The foundation stone of the new capital was laid by the King Emperor

George V on December 15 of the same year. Subsequently, a town planning commitee was appointed by the Secretary of State for India to advise the Government of India as to the site and lay-out of the new capital The committee consisted of Captain G.S C Swinton, Chairman and Mr J. A Brodie and Sir Edwin Lutyens as members In its final report dated March 20, 1913, the committee approved of the Raisina Hill site Meanwhile, in 1912, Lord Hardinge, the then Viceroy, had announced that the buildings must be completed in four years Sir Edwin Lutyens, faced with this stupendous task, asked for assistance and chose Sir Herbert Baker as his coadjutor It was decided that while Sir Edwin Lutyens would undertake the task of planning and constructing the Viceroy's House, the Great Place, the Kingsway, the Record Office and the general lay-out of the city streets, Sir Herbert Baker would be entrusted with the job of planning and constructing the Secretariat buildings and the Council Chamber Later, Sir Edwin Lutyens was given the additional task of designing and constructing the Secretariat buildings, the Council Chamber and also the All India War Memorial at the foot of the Kingsway

The central point of interest in the lay-out of New Delhi, which gives the motif of the whole, is the Viceroy's House (now called Rashtrapati Bhavan), with its wide flight of steps, portice and dome and large blocks of Secretariat The Kingsway (now called Rajpath) — broad avenue of infinite perspective — slopes gently upward from the All India Memorial Arch to the Great Place (now known as Vijay Chowk) at the foot of the Secretariat buildings The most striking feature of the planning of the city, as a whole, is its magnificent use of space Its circumference is no less than 11 miles whereas that of Old Delhi, which is vastly more populous, amounts to about seven miles only Within this great area have grown up new residential sectors — the ruling princes of India built splendid places in one portion and there are groups of attractively designed bungalows for the use of the officials The roads are good and carefully aligned in relation to a single focus, called the Great Place (Vijay Chowk) at the foot of the Secretariat buildings, the most important, known as Kingsway (Rajpath) leads straight from the Great place between ornamental waters and tree-studded grass plots to the huge War Memorial Arch, and on towards Indraprastha and Humayun's tomb, Parliament Street, the other important road, is also focussed upon the symbols of the past since it advances straight towards the domes and minarets of the Jama Masjid in Old Delhi. Subsidiary avenues lead to other monuments

In this way the new city is related to the old city Independence and partition have combined to transform India's capital from a soulless administrative headquarters to a vital nerve centre of the nation, accommodating more than four times the population it was originally intended to house Here, within sight of the staid Parliament buildings, a number of four and five storey buildings have been constructed, of these the most conspicuous is the building of the Reserve Bank of India A number of magnificent multi-storeyed buildings for the offices of the Government of India have been constructed within a mile's radius of the Secretariat buildings New colonies have sprung, some ill-planned and some elegant and refined to the extreme

It is in winter — especially on January 26, when the Republic Day celebrations are held — that New Delhi is seen in all its glory The President takes the salute at a spectacular parade Picked units representing a cross-section of the nation's armed forces, march past the Presidential dais at Rajpath with their armour gleaming in the winter sun They are followed by cultural pageant The President's elephant yellow-tinted and resplendent in gay caparison leads a cavalcade of varied tableaux while Toofani jet aircrafts trace the tricolour in smoke across the clear blue sky The Republic Day celebrations conclude in the capital with the most colourful and moving ceremony of all — the Beating of the Retreat at Vijay Chowk (the Great Place) There is a touch of grandeur in the marching the drums the proud fanfares and the plaintive call of the bugles in the evening stillness, all against the magnificent setting of a golden sunset over the great domes and towers of the rose-red Secretariat buildings Trumpteers line the steps — leading to the Secretariat from Vijay Chowk while the 'sowars' on horse and camel make an impressive border The President drives in State through cheering crowds to preside over the ceremoney The marching and music are both of a very high order The "cradle song" and the evening hyman 'Abide with me are beautifully performed A particularly pleasing effect is achievd by the refrain being taken up echo-like in the distance from the Secretariat tower by a bugle in the first and a trumpet in the other

Nicholson Garden

Situated outside the Kashmire gate this park was made in about 1861 It contained a statue of General Nicholson by Sir T Brock which has now been removed.

Nili Chhatri

The ornate little temple, known as Nili Chhatri, is situated within a few yards of the Bahadur Shahi Gate of Fort Salimgarh. Many a legend cluster about this shrine, which is believed by its votaries to have been built by Yudhishthira. Cunningham states that the present temple was most probably built by the Marathas during their short occupation of Delhi but the popular belief is that it was erected by Humayun in 1532 A D, as a pleasure house and was later converted into a temple. Jahangir visited it in 1618 A D, and again in 1620 A D, decking it on each occasion with inscribed tablets, which do not now exist, though the inscriptions are preserved Today, its uniquely ornamented roof can still be clearly seen from a distance. but a large portion of the building is completely lost to view by the construction of a new road

Old Bridges

Mention shoud be made of the old bridges of Delhi. Unfortunately not much is known about them The oldest bridge appears to be the Shah Alam bridge which spans the Najafgarh drain at Wazirabad, about a mile to the north of Timarpur Close by are the mosque and dargarh of Shah Alam—it is also known as the Wazirabad mosque The bridge was named after a local saint who is said to have been a contemporary of Firuz Shah Tughluq (1351-88A D) It has narrow arches with heavily but tressed piers which are thick at the base but taper away at the top The sluice and the heavy piers of the bridge were originally intended to regulate the backflow of the Yamuna of this depression (drain) during flood time The bridge is still serviceable

The largest of Delhi's old bridges is Barah Pulah It spans a stream which flow near Humayun's tomb a point, a hundred yards to the east of Khan-i-Khanan's tomb It is 361 feet long, 45 feet wide and 29 feet high It appears that the bridge was built by the eunuch Miharban Agha belonging to the court of Emperor Jahangir (who is also reputed to have built the eastern gate of the Arab-ki-Sarai) Another old bridge worth mentioning is the Ath Pulah in the Lodi Gardens It was built by Nawab Bahadur, a nobleman in the court of Akbar It is about a hundred feet in length and has seven arches Its pleasing outline and beautiful finish is a tribute to its builder Another notable old bridge is Sat Pulah—a double-storeyed with seven openings in each pier It is located in the village of Khirki, beyond Malviya Nagar It was build in 1326 A D in the reign of

Mohammad Tughluq Its main function was to serve as a dam but it was also used as a bridge

Old Secretariat

This building is situated on Alipore Road (Sham Nath Marg) east of the Ridge It was constructed in 1912 Formerly it was the Secretariat of the Government of India The offices of the Delhi Administration are now located there.

Okhla

It is the headworks of Agra Canal, which consists of Weir under-sluice, Canal Head Lock and River Training Works They extend on the left bank of the Yamuna from the Delhi Railway Bridge to the weir and on the right bank from the weir to a distance of three miles below The opening ceremony of the Agra Canal was performed in March, 1874 by Sir William Muir Okhla headworks is a popular resort for outings and excursions It has the potentialities of developing into the finest recreational spot in Delhi

Parliament House

This imposing circular building approximately 125 yards in diameter and 75 feet high, situated to the right of Vijay Chowk, was designed by Sir Herbert Baker The site of this building (originally known as the Council Chamber) is not so good as that of Rashtrapati Bhavan and the Central Secretariat owing to the fact that its existence was not contemplated at the time when the original plans were made, and the central shelf of the rock was not wide enough to accommodate it It is, however, conveniently near the Central Secretariat and from the architectural point of view, it is certainly a worthy companion to the other official buildings

There was a difference of opinion between Sir Edwin Lutyens and Sir Herbert Baker regarding its design at the beginning of 1920 Sir Herbert Baker proposed a three-winged plan, with a central dome over a great hall in the centre Sir Edwin Lutyens, however, planned a circular building as it would be more in accord with the angles of the street plan Lutyens' plan was accepted The foundation stone was laid by His Royal Highness, the Duke of Connaught, in February, 1921 It took five years to complete the building On January 18, 1927, Sir Bhupendra Nath Mitra, Member of the Governor-General's Executive Coun-

cil, in charge of the Department of Industries and Labour, invited Lord Irwin to open the building. Sir Bhupendra Nath Mitra made a speech of great interest in which he described the building and its architectural beauties In reply, the Viceroy praised the architect for the noble idea of housing within one circle the three bodies, the Chamber of Princes, the Council of State and the Legislative Assembly, signifying thereby the unity not of British India only but of all India under the Imperial Crown After this, the Viceroy advanced to the door of the building where the architect, Sir Herbert Baker handed him a golden key with which he opened the door and a new era began in the history of Parliamentary Government in India

It is an imposing structure, circular in shape and centrally surmounted by a large dome The outer edge of the building is formed of a verandah, having along its outer side a complete circle of round stone columns, while opening on to the verandah are a circle of Secretariat offices The girdle of verandah and offices surround a large circular site, in which there are four distinct buildings linked with one another and with the offices Three of them are practically semi-circular in shape, they are externally similar in size and design Internally, they were arranged with the original object of accommodating respectively the Chamber of Princes, the Council of State, and the Central Legislative Assembly The spaces between them are occupied by gardens In the centre of the circle stands the largest of the inner buildings It is circular in shape and is linked by a cloister with each of the other buildings It contains a domed circular central hall 90 feet in diameter On the oak-panelled walls of the Central Hall hang the portraits of the creators of Modern India The high-domed Central Hall of Parliament House has witnessed many stirring scenes It was in this historic chamber that the Constituent Assembly sat for three years to forge the Constitution of the Sovereign Democratic Republic It was in this Central Hall on December 10, 1959, that wave after wave of applause and cheering rose from a record assembly of members of both Houses of Parliament, who heard with rapt attention the great American leader—President Eisenhower It was in the same Central Hall that famous foreign dignitories, such as Lord Attlee and Khruscheve, were cheered enthusiastically by the Members of Parliament In January, 1955, a bronze statue of Chandragupta Maurya was installed in one of the inner lawns of Parliament House The statute was made by Mrs Hilda Seligman, a wellknown London sculptor. It bears the legend . "Dreaming of the India he was to create."

Purana Qila

This fort, situated on the Delhi Mathura Road, two miles south of Delhi Gate, was constructed on the historical site of Indraprastha by Sher Shah and Humayun It is difficult to say as to how much of the citadel is the work of Humayun and how much of it is that of Sher Shah for, there is not much difference in the architectures of the two periods The general opinion, however, is that the walls and gates were built in the reign of Humayun while the buildings within, namely the mosque and Sher Mandal, are the work of Sher Shah Humayun rebuilt Indraprastha and renamed it as Dinpanah Sher Shah strengthened the citadel of Dinpanah and renamed it as Shergarh. Salim Shah also took steps to improve the citadel Just as Firuz Tughluq had despoiled the older cities of Siri and Jahanpanah in order to build his new city of Firuzabad, similarly Sher Shah obtained his building materials for his new city from the ruins of Firuzabad Thus, by repeated acts of vandalism, many ancient monuments have been lost to posterity.

Owing to his untimely death Sher Shah was never able to complete his city but the Purana Qila, although now little more than a shell, is still intact The citadel has a circuit of about a mile It is rectangular in shape, the east and west sides being the largest The walls are some 13 inches in thickness and are terminated at each corner by massive bastions It should be noted that unlike earlier fortified cities of Delhi, the walls of Purana Qila are not provided frequently with bastions it is only the west wall, which possesses any intermediate bastions at all, curtain between them averaging 240 feet This was probably due to the fact that there was water on the remaining sides, which rendered them more immune from assault The river at one time used to wash the eastern base of the fort and feed the protecting most on the other three sides Thus, the first remarkable feature of the citadel is that "its bastioned remparts massively constructed of rubble masonry, are marvels of strength" The second remarkable feature is that the three gates of Purana Qila show a happy synthesis of Hindu and Muslim styles of architecture Thus the pointed arch harmonises with the Hindu *chattris* while Hindu brackets support Hindu pavilions The northern gate, popularly known as Tallaqi Darwaza, has, among its decorations, a rude representation of the solar orb It has two panels depicting a man engaged in a mortal combat with a lion in half relief The southern gate has also similar panels with elephants instead. Of all the gates, Tallaqi Darwaza is the most

famous for it is considered to be one of the most striking monuments of Delhi, the *chattris* on its summit towering between the Delhi-Mathura Road and the citadel some 127 feet above the level of the low lying ground The roof is crowned by three *chattris*, supported on columns of red sandstone. These *chattris*. with their tops covered originally with chunam of dazzling whiteness and enriched with coloured titles, must have given the gate a very striking appearance

But more remarkable than even the walls and gates of this citadel are the two notable buildings inside, which have survived the onslaughts of time-Sher Mandal and Qila-i-Khona Masjid Sher Mandal, a two-storeyed octagonal tower, is associated with the death of Humayun, for, it was on its steep stairs that he missed his step and tumbled out of the world The Masjid, built about 1541-42 A D, is an important landmark in the history of Indo-Islamic architecture. The building has been rightly described by Fergusson as being the most perfect of those erected by Sher Shah It marks a significant improvement on its prototype, the Jamali Masjid, erected some fifteen years earlier Within a short period of fifteen years, every feature, somewhat crudely fashioned in the Jamali Masjid, was refined, improved and amplified so that the Qila-i-Kohna Masjid became a well-balanced composition The Qila-i-Kohna Masjid is by no means large, for it occupies only a rectangle of 168 feet by 44½ feet, and its height is 66 feet At its rear corners are fine stair-turrets, with oriel windows on brackets at intervals These are pleasing features of the building Even more graceful is the arrangement of its facade, divided into arched bays The central one of these days is larger than the others but each has an open archway recessed within it The architect has shown great skill by enriching each part "with mouldings, bracketed openings, marble inlay, carving and other embellishments" The interior of the mosque has also a pleasing appearance for archways divide it into compartments, with elegant *mihrabs* recessed in their western walls The chief glory of the mosque lies not only in the elegant *mihrabs* and the pleasing interior but also in the central portion of the facade The variety of materials employed in the facade adds to the charm—the entrance arch is of marble, the spandrels of red sandstone studded with marble bosses the column and pilasters of black and white marble The change in the material of the facade from marble to red sandstone gives the whole bay a singularly pleasing effect. This mosque is indeed the most perfect of Sher Shah's buildings The Archaeological Survey of India have conducted excavations in recent years

in Purana Qila and obtained cultural sequence ranging in date from Circa 1000 B C, to the Mughal Period

Qila Rai Pithora

This fort was built by Rai Pithora, better known as Prithivi Raj Chauhan It is roughly a rectangle in shape, the south wall crosses the road to Gurgaon close to Adham Khan's tomb, the north wall cuts the Delhi road near the 10th milestone from Delhi, half of the western wall is formed by the west wall of the inner citadel called Lal Kot, the eastern wall cuts the Tughluqabad road about one mile from the Qutb Minar The ruins of the gates (estimated to be 10 or 13) are still to be traced

Qudsia Garden

Outside the Kashmire Gate is the pretty Qudsia Garden, laid out in 1748 A D, by Qudsia Begum, the wife of Emperor Muhammad Shah and the mother of the ill-fated Ahmad Shah, from whose reign dates the final decline of the Mughal Empire Qudsia Begum must have been a remarkable woman, for, though born a slave, she rose to be the wife of an emperor and mother to his successor Her son's grand Wazir, Safdar Jang, appointed Ghazi-ud-din to the supreme command of the army The latter strengthened his position and deposed Emperor Ahmad Shah, blinded him and also his mother, Qudsia Begum Such was the tragic and of the Begum, whose name is associated with the fine garden which once skirted the bank of the Yamuna, and had an imposing gateway pavilions at each side, a mosque a *chabutra* or platform overlooking the river and an imposing stone terrace, flanked by two towers, facing the river Nothing is left of these edifices except a ruined gatway and a scarred mosque The Qudsia Bagh played an important part in the war of 1857 for, it was from here that a British Mortar Battery opened fire and played throughout the night of September 10, on the curtain connecting the Water and Kashmire Bastions

Qutb Minar

Towering high above the countryside the Qutb Minar is a noble monument of the Muslim rule in India Ibn Batuta, a famous traveller and commentator of the Middle Ages, spoke of the Minar as "one of the wonders of the world which has no parallel in the lands of Islam" Even today, there is unanimity of opinion that the tower, by reason of its charming

simplicity, delicate finish and poetry of design, is "the most beautiful example of its class known to exist anywhere". Only one building can vie with it in grandeur—the Campanile of Florence built by Giotti But although it is thirty feet taller than the Minar and is also beautiful yet it lacks that poetry of design and exquisite finish of detail, which are the chief characteristics of the Qutb Minar The only Muhammadan building known to be taller than the Minar is the Minaret of the mosque of Hasan at Cairo The Minar, however, has a far nobler appearance and is distinctly superior to its Egyptian rival in design and finish. Sleeman in his interesting book *Rambles and Recollections of an Indian Official*, pays glowing tribute to the Minar: "But the single majesty of this Minar of Qutb-ud-din, so grandly conceived, so beautifully proportioned, so chastily embellished, and so exquisitely finished, fills the mind of the spectator with emotions of wonder and delight without any such aid, he feels that it is among the towers of the earth what the Taj is among the tombs—something unique of its kind that must ever stand alone in his recollections"

There has been of late years much speculation as to the origin of the Qutb Minar, whether it is a purely Muhammadan building or a Hindu building altered and completed by the conquerors There is a school of thought which believes that the Minar was a Hindu monument It is said that the tower was built by Rai Pithora for his daughter to see the river Yamuna from the top of it Cunningham, however, advanced powerful arguments against this theory The Muslims had already built at Ghazni two Minars of similar design with angular flutes On the other hand, the only Hindu pillar of an early date, namely, the smaller column at Chittor, is altogether dissimilar, both in plan and in detail In fact the entire structure of the tower—its flutings, its arabesque ornamentation, and the corbelling of its 'stalactites'—are basically Sarcenic in motif and felling. The Qutb Minar, which stands a little outside the south-east corner of the original mosque—Quwwat-ul-Islam—served a double purpose, namely, as a tower of victory and as a minaret of the mosque This stupendous architectural structure was a veritable tower of victory intended to signalise the victory of the Muslims, which laid the foundation of the Muslim power in India In addition, it also served as an adjunct of the mosque, for although mosques at Delhi apparently lacked minarets till the time of the Mughals, one of the inscription on the building and some lines of the poet Amir Khusro would appear to indicate that it was in fact the minaret of the mosque and used by the Muezzin.

The history of the Qutb Minar is writ on its own profile. One of the arabesques on the basement storey contains the name of Qutb-ud-din Aibak who laid the foundation of the Muslim power in India Two other bands refer to his master Muhammad-bin-Sam of Ghur The inscriptions on the second, third and fourth storeys bear the name of Iltutmish, the successor of Qutb-ud-din Aibak On the fifth storey, a rubric indicates the restoration of the tower by Sultan Firuz Shah Tughluq The inlet of the tower, which is more recent, refers to its renovation by Sikandar Shah Lodi in 1503 A D Thus, it is clear that the Minar is the work of Qutb-ud-din Aibak, who is said to have commenced it in about 1200 A D—and probably finished the basement storey Iltutmish carried the project to its completion, adding three more storeys As the Minar was damaged by lighting in 1368 A D, Firuz Shah Tughluq rebuilt the fourth storey, added the fifth and surmounted it with a harp-shaped cupola The cupola has since disappeared (having been thrown down by an earthquake in 1803 A D) but the fourth and fifth storeys still survive They are essentially different both architecturally and in the medium of their construction, from the work of Aibak and Iltutmish The fluted storeys are replaced by cylindrical shafts, and the bulk of the work is in white marble in place of red stone During the waning glow of the Mughal power in India, the Minar was again damaged by an earthquake In 1828, Major Smith of the Bengal Engineers carried out its repairs with skill but his innovations -the balustrades built in 'true Gothic style' and the entrance gateway are open to serious objection Smith also added to the Minar a kiosk, which appeared so incongruous that Lord Hardinge ordered its removal in 1848 It now rests on the lawn near the Dak Bungalow The summit is now surrounded by a simple iron railing Such, in brief, is the history of the famous Minar

The Qutb Minar is 238 feet and 1 inch in height with a base diameter of 47 feet 3 inches, and an upper diameter of nearly 9 feet The shaft is divided into five storeys, of which the lower storey is 94 feet 11 inches The height of the second storey is 50 feet 8½ inches, that of the third storey is 40 feet 9¼ inches, that of the fourth storey is 25 feet 4 inches and that of the fifth storey is 22 feet and 4 inches The shaft is thus 234 feet and 1 inch high, excluding Firuz Shah's cupola, of which now only the stumn 2 feet high may be seen on the top of it The plinth on which the shaft stands is 2 feet high Thus the total height of Qutb Minar is 238 feet and 1 inch An attractive feature of the Minar is that the lowest storey has twenty four flut-

ings, alternately angular and circular, the second storey has circular flutings, and the third only angular. Each fluting is carried right up to the end of the storey, and this undoubtedly adds to the beauty and effect of the tower These three storeys are of red sandstone Above this, however, the Minar is plain and made principally of marble with belts of the red sandstone Another remarkable feature of the Minar is that it is ornamented by four boldly-projecting balconies (supported on elaborately decorated brackets), the first being at 97 feet, the second at 148 feet, the third at 188 feet and the fourth at 214 feet from the ground A doorway in each storey opens on to its own special balcony According to Stephen, "the finish and elaboration" of the honeycomb work in these brackets is "not surpassed by anything of its kind in Delhi"

Another notable feature of the Minar is that unlike the Qutb Mosque its decoration is "consistently Sarcenic in character from base to top" J A Page advances forceful arguments in support of this view "Features of typically Hindu origin are practically non-existent, and only appear as narrow string-courses edging the inscribed bands, and as two minor members of the projecting balconies, the remaining ornament being distinctively Sarcenic in character The wide encircling bands inscribed with *Naskh* lettering afford a delicate relief to the plain fluted masonry of the great shaft, and are indeed a happy incident of the design, but perhaps the most interesting and effective feature are the boldly projecting balconies at every stage, supported on an early type of the 'stalactite' corbelling that is such a universally characteristic and attractive feature of Sarcenic architectural decoration common alike to the Qutb in India and the Al Hambra in Spain"

Quwwat-ul Islam Mosque

This mosque (the Might of Islam) situated near the Qutb Minar is, even in ruin one of the most magnificent works in the world" The original mosque of Qutb-ud-din was begun in 1193 A D, and completed in 1197 A D Subsequent additions were made to it by Iltutmish in 1230 A D and Ala-ud-din Khalji, in 1315 A D, but on account of the death of the latter, the work had to be left incomplete The mosque consists of an inner and outer courtyard The inner courtyard is surmounted by an exquisite colonnade--the pillars made of richly decorated shafts were the spoils of twentyseven Hindu temples Hindu influence is traceable in this building for we can still see in the pillars the typical Hindu ornamentation tasselled ropes and bells

tendrils and leaves of flowers, and the cow and the calf. There is also a trace of human figurines, though these have been mutilated Thus, this mosque is of considerable historical importance, for, in its original form, Hindu influence is most predominant, with the exception of the five *mihrabs* in the back-wall the entire building with its walls, capitals, architraves, ceilings, etc presents an essentially Hindu appearance But when Muslim power in India was consolidated in the reign of Iltutmish. Muslim architecture asserted itself, Iltutmish's extension of the mosque in 1230 A D, is fundamentally Islamis in character and design, although Hindu shafts, capitals and architraves are still there

The glory of the mosque, however, is not in these Hindu remains but in the grand line of arches that closes its western side, extending from north to south for about 385 feet They are eleven in number, three greater and eight smaller The central arch is 22 feet wide and 53 feet high The larger side arches are 24 feet 4 inches wide and about the same height as the central one, while the smaller arches are of about half these dimension The central part of this screen, 147 feet in length, forming the mosque proper, was built by Qutb-ud-din Aibak This screen is one of the finest blends of Indo-Islamic art for, although according to J A Page, the serpentine tendrils and undulating leaves of the bands of sinuous carving are the work of the Hindu, the disposition of these foliated bands in the design of the facade, is on the other hand, characteristically Sarcenic in character Iltutmish's extension of the screen shows the predominance of the Muslim architecture, for the carving becomes intensely Sarcenic, the flowers and leaves are replaced by diapers of arabesque designs, and the Arabic characters become even more evolved Iltutmish more than doubled the compass of the mosque in the enclave he also erected a tomb for his own burial Ala-ud-din Khalji planned to redouble the mosque by the addition of a seminar and tomb, a screen of arches, corridors and fountains Its gates were to be presumably on the pattern of the Alai Darwaza which marks the zenith of Indo-Islamic decoration He also conceived of a Minar, which should rival the glory of the Qutb Minar But death intervened, and the results of the unfinished efforts still survive to remind us of the glory that might have been

Raj Ghat

The hallowed ground, where the mortal remains of Mahatma Gandhi were cremated on the evening of January 31, 1948, lies in the eastern part of the city on the west bank of the Yamuna,

not far from Delhi Gate. The day before, a fanatic Hindu youth had shot dead the Father of the Nation as he was proceeding to conduct his daily prayer meeting at Birla House in New Delhi

Entrance to the Samadhi is by two simple gates, one on Ring Road (the main gate) and the other on the south-west side A broad footpath, flanked by velvety lawns, leads to the simple open Samadhi. A raised square platform with the words "Hey Ram" ("O, God" — the last and only words Gandhiji uttered as he collapsed on the ground in Birla House after being hit by the bullets) engraved on it, marks the place where Gandhiji was cremated There is a low carved stone enclosure A paved square platform of grey stones encircles the Samadhi with raised flower beds at the four corners Access to this platform is by a flight of steps from all sides from another and larger platform lower down

To the Indians Gandhiji's Samadhi has become a place of pilgrimage October 2—anniversary of his birth—, January 30—anniversary of his death— and February 12,— the day on which his ashes were immersed at scores of places in India including the Triveni, are observed as days of national prayer at Rajghat Al so, every Friday evening—the day on which Gandhiji died—prayers are held at the Samadhi and offerings of flowers made On national festivals and particularly on Gandhiji's birth and death anniversaries, thousands of people flock to Rajghat and pay their homage to the man, who freed the country from foreign yoke These are occasions for them to rededicate themselves to the ideals for which Gandhiji lived and died A feature of Rajghat, which always attracts visitors, is the large number of sapplings planted in the plot on the south side by representatives of foreign countries Among these are a cedar from the Lebanon, camphor from Japan, jacharanda from Argentina, cypru from North America and a polythea from Yugoslavia On December 10, 1959 President Eisenhower planted an American flannel bush sappling, whose chief characteristic is that it grow from 15 to 30 feet in height and blooms into yellow flowers

Rashtrapati Bhavan

This grand palace of great majesty and refirement occupie a prominent position—it is built on a high basement constructed on an outcrop of rock, about 400 yards behind the Central Secretariat buildings Originally known as Viceroy's House, it is now the official residence of India's President

Designed by Sir Edwin Lutyens, it was completed and occupied in 1929 Money was spent lavishly on its construction—its cost was £8 77 136 (or £12,53,000 including the garden and staff quarters) It is estimated that New Delhi was built at a total cost of £10 million, thus it is clear that a very large part of the money spent on the building of New Delhi was actually spent on the construction of this splendid palace It is indeed a magnificent palace for it has many noble courts, stairways and apartments a great durbar hall and a magnificent dome It is one of the largest palaces in the world It is 630 feet wide and 530 feet deep from east to west It measures 1,030 yards round the whole of its basement plinth It has a total area of 2,10,430 sq feet It is undoubtedly one of the most magnificent palaces of the world and A S G Butler, who chronicled the achievements of Sir Edwin Lutyens, remarks with legitimate pride "should the civilisation of Western Empire perish there will be this relic left in India exhaling a grandeur which is peculiarly English and a quality of clean arrogance superbly phrased—like the speech before Agincourt in Shakespeare's Henry V" Between the north and south Secretariat blocks a fine road leads to a forecourt—the raised causeway--and Rashtrapati Bhavan The court is about 600 feet in breadth and 1 300 feet in length The Jaipur column stands in the forecourt From here roads lead off to north and south, forming alternative lines of approach to Rashtrapati Bhavan The main entrance is from the east front A flight of steps leads to the portico of twelve pillars, each 30 feet high A further flight of steps leads from the portico to the vestibule lined with marble (40 feet high, half as wide and nearly twice as long) The four *chhatris* on the bastions ending the portico the sparking fountains behind them the pressed stone screens at their sides and the long flight of steps leading from the portico form a magnificent approach to Rashtrapati Bhavan No wonder a British critic has remarked "Never has a palace been entered by stairs of such majestic invitation, nor has the house of a King's representative been fronted with such immaculate nobility"

Straight ahead is the Durbar Hall a magnificent domed structure The walls of white marble are 42 feet high, the dome is 72 feet in diameter, and 77 feet 6 inches high The artistic design of the floor is very impressive there are great panels of Italian *rosso porfirico* framed in white with a black border, which lend added charm to the hall The polished floor reflects as in a mirror, the white marble walls and the golden columns At night the hall takes on a magic hue for it is suffused with a

soft light from hidden sources and lamps of white marble standing in each apse During the British regime, the most conspicuous feature of the hall was the gorgeous canopy of the thrones. Grouped round the Durbar Hall are the State rooms and great stairways from the entrance courts on the north and south sides of the State rooms, the most impressive are the dining room and the library The half for banquests is very spacious it is 104 feet long, 34 feet wide and 30 feet high The marble floor is patterned into grey and white crystalline triangles and cubes. At night it gleams in the soft light of superb chandeliers The floor of the library is every more marvellous than that of the dining room, for, it consists of grey, white and yellow marbles inlaid in patterns of inter-lacing circles The loggia, occupying the centre of the garden front "is the most enchanted of all these architectural lungs that interpenetrate the palace and which Lutyens elaborated from the common Indian verandah" The open staircase court, facing north-west, has a charm of its own. Of the four important stairways, the smallest (formerly known as the Viceroy's private staircase) is the most fascinating for it is cooled by water-troughs lined with black marble Projecting from this central block (comprising the Durbar Hall, State rooms and staircases) are four wings On the western side of the palace is a raised garden, popularly known as the Mughal Gardens, and behind that is a park containing the staff houses and quarters.

Till lately, the Rashtrapati Bhavan was furnished in the best of western styles Many alterations are now being carried out on its make-up to bring them into conformity with the testes and standards of this country Thus, shortly after Dr Rajendra Prasad became the President of India, he expressed a desire that all linen and fabric of his study and personal apartments should be replaced with khadi material From curtains to counterpanes, and towels to tapestry, all cotton, silk and woollen fabric are now of hand-spun and hand-woven materials of varying shades and patterns, which impart a new look of simplicity to the interior of Rashtrapati Bhavan The guest rooms are being renovated so that they should represent the culture and pageant of different States of the Indian Union Wall and floor furnishings and decorations, curtains, carpets tapestry, furniture and mantle pieces will bear the distinctive stamp of the features that distinguish each individual State. Thus the Rashtrapati Bhavan will become a living symbol of India's culture and pageant Some rooms of Rashtrapati Bhavan are reserved for the President and his family

for residential purposes some are used as offices of the Government of India and the President's Secretariat some housed a temporary museum (now shifted to National Museum at Janpath), while some (the State rooms) are used by the Government of India for holding conferences and official receptions Rashtrapati Bhavan is indeed a remarkable building, not only on account of its impressive size but also on account of its perfect proportion of mass and detail, its colour and its great dome, which dominates for miles the countryside around Its imposing facade, with a massive colonnade at the top of a long and broad marble stairs, has a peculiar charm of its own. From the top of the steps one has a magnificant view of the symmetrical twin blocks of the Secretariat buildings, with their tall towers and massive domes, and still further ahead of the well laid-out Central Vista and the Memorial Arch The Mughal Gardens lend added charm and grace to Rashtrapati Bhavan They are matchless for the splash of floral colour

Ridge

If the Yamuna is the heart of Delhi, the Ridge, which overlooks the reeming city like a giant sentinel, is its crowning glory From its highest points the panorama of Delhi unfolds picturesquely.

The Ridge is also associated with certain historical events More than 600 years ago, Firuz Tughluq, with his passion for building and for sport, made of the Ridge a resort fit for his pleasures Upset by the death of his favourite son, Fateh Khan, the emperor loved to divert his mind by hunting So he made an enclosure for game and erected buildings on the Ridge These came to be called the Kushk-i-Shikar or hunting lodge All that remains of this hunting lodge are the ruins of two buildings (Pirghaib and Chauburji, near Hindu Rao Hospital), Asoka's pillar and a mysterious tunnel. Pirghaib is a massive structure of two storeys constructed of rubble masonry and measuring some 66 feet by 40 feet It is believed to have been originally an observatory (a trignometrical survey station) Chauburji—a double-storeyed building—was evidently a mausoleum. Three buildings on the Ridge are associated with the war of 1857—the Mutiny Memorial, Hindu Rao's House (the headquarters of the British force) and Flagstaff Tower (the rallying point of the British refugees)

Roshanara Garden

This garden was laid out in 1650, A.D., by Roshanara Begum, daughter of Shahjahan. She actively supported her brother, Aurangzeb, in the war of succession and helped him to secure the throne of Delhi Bernier has given an interesting account of her regal state in Aurangzeb's court when she was the sole mistress of the Imperial Seraglio, and enjoyed all the privileges of a queen of the first rank. She, however, made a false move in 1664 A.D., when Aurangzeb fell ill Thinking that he would not survive she stole his signet ring, and intrigued with it to supplant Shah Alam, the rightful heir to the throne, and secure the succession of Azam Shah, his brother, then a boy of six, so that during his long minority she might wield-absolute power as regent Her plans miscarried as Aurangzeb recovered from illness She lost her pre-eminent position at the court and was later poisoned. She was buried in 1671 A.D, in this garden, which bears her name

In the centre of the garden stands a building—the summer house-- the sole reminder of the glory and architectural beauty of those times This is the place where Roshanara Begum used to relax, enjoying the bracing and peaceful atmosphere of the garden "It must have been a gay sight when the Begum Roshanara's elephant procession arrived from Delhi fort the huge animals, with their gold-embroidered coverings, their solemn, ponderous tread, their jingling silver bells, conveying the 'goddesses' of the Imperial harem enshrined from the vulgar gaze· and then the princess herself—escaping from the noise and stifling heat of the royal palace—came in her splendid ross-curtained litter, swung between two smaller elephants, to while away a few hours in her cool, flower-scented, fountain-sprinkled gardens" Four channels reached towards the summer house in the original layout of the garden Only one is, however traceable now The summer house and the channel together give some idea of the beautifully laid out garde of the Mughal times, with fountains, waterfalls and the bathing tank for the princess The garden fell into neglect but in 1875, it was modernised by Colonel Cracroft, the Commissioner of the Delhi Division, old ruined buildings were demolished and nothing was left standig but Roshanara's tomb, a long tank east of it, and a gateway east of the tank. The western portion of the garden, that lies between one of the missing channels and the Circular Road, was leased on July 7, 1923, to the Roshanara Club for 30 years for a nominal annual rent The lease has been renewed for another 30 years The days of neglect and indifference are over and steady efforts are being made to give

a new look to the garden and to develop it into a real beauty spot. Colour-wise seasonal flowers have been planted in a plot on the northern side of Baradari A 35-feet wide sunken channel has been dug up on the northern side of the Rose Garden with a view to making it a soothing retreat during the summer months Shrubs of Buddleia have been planted in the plot on the western side. The silvery green leaves look lovely and the creamy panicles of flowers bathe the atmosphere in their sweet fragrance during day time in spring The Buddleia is a beauty spot of this area. Roshanara Garden has indeed the possibilities of being developed into a unique beauty spot With its existing pond and palm-fringed walks the garden is ideally situated for a Japanese garden, according to Mori the Japanese expert on landscape, who visited the place On his suggestion the area has now been selected for laying out a Japanese style garden It has waterfalls, brooks, shelters rock setting and Japanese lanterns The garden will be provided with paved walks stepping stones and a small restaurant in a centrally located island

Safdar Jang's Mausoleum

Between the Qutb and Delhi is the tomb of Safdar Jang (the Wazir of Emperor Ahmad Shah) erected in 1753 A D It was built by his son, Nawab Shuja-ud-daulah under the supervision of an Abyssinian, named Bilal Muhammad Khan, at a cost of three lakhs of rupees

It is located in the centre of a large garden on a lofty terrace The roof of the tomb—surmounted by a marble dome—is supported by open marble pavilions on the four corners The garden is about 300 yards square, at each of the four corners is an octagonal tower, whose sides with the exception of the entrance) are covered with perforated red stone screens. Behind the gateway there is a masjid It has three domes and three arched entrances built of red sandstone The terrace over which the tomb stands is 110 feet square In its centre there is a vault under which is the grave of Safdar Jang The building over the grave is about 60 feet square, and 90 feet high In its centre there is a room which contains a beautiful marble monument highly polished and massively carved The ornamentation of the tomb consists of inlaid bands of marble A stone aqueduct may yet be seen in front of the tomb The mausoleum represents the last phase of the Mughal style of architecture After the death of Aurangzeb in 1707 A D, the Mughal art became decadent In comparing this mausoleum with that of Humayun one cannot fail to notice certain similarities—the same wide courtyard, laid out with shallow

ponds (now quite dry), the same smooth walls, and the same fashion of plinth, dome and minaret But this building lacks the grace and simplicity of Humayun's tomb—the minarets look quite clumsy due to over-elaboration. In fact a bad impression is created on the mind by its lack of proportions It lacks the balanced proportions with broad simple places—so characteristic of Humayun's tomb It is indeed "an ostentatious and effected structure, each part embarrassed with repetitions of weak and tasteless motifs" Indeed the building, which has been rightly termed 'the last flicker in the lamp of Mughal architecture at Delhi' shows unmistakable signs of the decay in architecture

Salimgarh Fort

The ruins of this fort are found on the west bank of the Yamuna near the railway bridge It was built in 1546 A D, by Salim Shah son and successor of Sher Shah, as a bulwark against the return of the ex-Emperor Humayun In 1622 A D, Jahangir built a bridge to connect the south gate of the Red Fort with Salimgarh The bridge was removed to make way for the new railway bridge In later Mughal times the fort was used chiefly for the purposes of a prison

Sapru House

Named after Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru, this brown and dull-red building has gained well-deserved popularity, for housed in it is Asia's only institution devoted to the objective study of the races and peoples of the world, their political and legal institutions, history and international relations The Indian Council of World Affairs and the Indian School of International Studies carry out research in international problems There is an excellent library to facilitate research The most striking feature of the building is its spacious and artistic hall where public lectures are frequently delivered.

Shalimar Garden

Almost wrapped in obscruity, about a mile to the north-west of Badli-ki-Sarai, are the ruins of the Shalimar Garden, built in imitation of the Kashmir royal gardens and the Shalimar Garden at Lahore, by one of Shahjahan's wives, Aazzu-n-Nissa, known as Bibi Akbarabadi In the centre of the garden is a building known as Shish Mahal. From this building one can see traces of a beautifully laid out garden with fountains, waterfalls and a canal It was in this garden that Aurangzeb was hurriedly crowned after

he had defeated the rivals for the throne Bernier mentions that the first halt was made here when, in December, 1664 A D., Aurangzeb, with all his court, proceeded to Lahore and Kashmir For a time after 1893 A.D, the garden was used by the British Resident at Delhi as a summer retreat. Ochterlony was fond of it while Sir Charles Metcalfe used it as his country house, where he and his Indian wife lived in sylvan seclusion This house still stands amidst the fruit trees, and is known as *Metcalfe Sahib ki Kothi* The garden does not seem to have regained its former splendour for bishop Heber, who was at Delhi in the winter of 1825 A D., remarked that it was "completely gone to decay" After the war of 1857, the garden being the Mughal Emperor's property, was confiscated and sold It has been turned into an orchard. The fountains and channels in the garden have now silted up Recently the Delhi Development Authority has decided to acquaint and restore it to its pristine glory.

Siri

This city was founded by Ala-ud-din Khalji about the year 1304 A D It was situated about three miles to the northeast of the Qutb Minar It is now completely in ruins Its ruined site is approached by a cart track, which branches off the Delhi-Qutb road at the 9th mile from Delhi The reason which led to the founding of the new city was that in 1303 A D, when Ala-ud-din Khalji was engaged in the siege of Chittor and his other forces were despatched against Warrangal in the south, a large Mongol force under Targhi threatened Delhi Although the danger was averted, for the Mongols retired after plundering the environs of Delhi, Ala-ud-din decided not to take any further risks and, therefor, built a fortified city on the plain of Siri, a place of great strategic importance (for the armies engaged in the defence or attack or Old Delhi used to encamp on this plain) Siri fast developed into a prosperous and flourishing city It contained splendid royal palaces, busy markets and magnificent buildings Of all these buildings the most famous was the splendid palace of Ala-ud-din Khalji, which, on account of a large number of pillars it contained, was given the name of Qasr-i-Hazar Satun It was a double storeyed building The uppar floor contained royal private chambers and a large open terrace (where tents could be erected) The lower storey was more magnificent for it was used for holding Darbars for public audience There was a large courtyard where royal horses were stabled and where mounted guards, were posted for the protection of the palace Adjoining it was the imperial haven or female apartment The successors of Ala-ud-din Khalji

stayed at the new capital but the rulers of the Tughluq dynasty founded new cities and, therefore, the importance of Siri declined considerably Its decline was rapid especially after it was plundered by the army of Timur In the reigns of Sayyid and Lodi kings little was heard of Siri The final blow to its prosperity was given by Sher Shah Suri He destroyed the city in order to obtain building material for the construction of his new city All that now remains of this imperial city are the insignificant remains of a few ancient structures and an old Baradari in the village of Shahpurjat

Sonehri Masjid (Chandni Chowk)

This mosque situated near Kotwali in Chandni Chowk, was built in 1721/22 A D, by Roshan-ud-daulah Zafar Khan (a noble) for Shah Bhik (a local saint). The mosque has three arched entrances which give access to three rooms covered by domes, sheathed with gilded copper and with gilt finials This mosque is of great historical interest for it was here that Nadir Shah unsheathed his sword on the morning of March 22, 1739 A D., as a signal for the massacre of the inhabitants of Delhi

Sonehri Masjid (Near Red Fort)

This mosque, situated about a hundred yards to the south of the Delhi Gate of Lal Qila, was built in 1751 A D In the inscription on its central arch two personages are referred to: Qudsia Begum (who built it) and Nawab Bahadur (under whose supervision the work of construction was carried out) Though originally a dancing girl, Qudsia Begum gained distinction by becoming the wife of Emperor Muhammad Shah and the mother of another emperor—Ahmad Shah During the reign of the latter she was very influential Her favourite was Nawab Bahadur Jawid Khan (the chief eunuch of Muhammad Shah) The mosque consists of a main prayer chamber with two minarets and three domes. The dome was originally covered with copper gilt plates, but when in 1852 A D, Bahadur Shah II repaired the mosque, he covered the ruined domes with sandstone

Sonehri Masjid (Near Faiz Bazar)

This mosque on the north side of Fai-Bazar (Daryaganj) was built in 1744-45 A D., by Roshan-ud-daula Zafar Khan (a noble in the reign of Muhammad Shah) for Shah Bhik (a local saint). Originally the domes of the mosque were covered with copper gilt plates but later on these were placed on those of the Sonehri Mosque near the Kotwali.

St. James Church

This church, situated near Kashmire Gate, owes its existence to a vow made by a wounded British soldier of fortune serving with Sindhia's forces early in the first decade of the 19th century As this soldier—later famous as Col James Skinner—lay gravely wounded on battlefield he vowed that if he survived he would erect a lasting memorial as a thanks offering He survived and just before the outbreak of the Anglo-Maratha War in 1803, he deserted Sindhia and went over to the side of the English He distinguished himself in many military enterprises He served the East India Company with distinction and raised a cavalry regiment called 'Skinner's Yellow Boys' or 'Skinner's Horse' His headquarters was at Hansi, but he often visited his house in Kashmire Gate He was a remarkable man, not only on account of his Indian manners but also on account of his proverbial hospitality He wrote Persian with ease and grace, he wrote his memoirs in Persian—a unique distinction for, he is perhaps the only Englishman to have written his memoirs in that language

As he rose to power and fortune he set aside a large sum of money for the construction of St James Church Although modelled on a church in Venice, it was for long believed to have been built in imitation of St Paul's cathedral in London The church-as the symbol of British authority was destroyed in the war of 1857 The popularity of Skinner can well be imagined from the fact that in that year the nationalist troops spared the tombs, both of Metcalfe and the Skinner family, but destroyed that of William Fraser The church was rebuilt after the war of 1857 It is the most important Anglican church in the city Its historic importance lies in the fact that from the inscriptions on tombstones in the little cemetry, north of the compound and from tablets inside the church, one could compile an interesting chapter on the history of Delhi Here lie buried the remains of a number of men who laid the foundations of British power in Northern India

Sultan Ghari

This is the earliest tomb in Delhi It was built in 1231-32 A D, by Iltutmish for his eldest son, Nasir-ud-din Mahmud Hindu influence seems to predominate, for, the pillars, capitals architraves and most of the decorative motifs are purely Hindu Even the arches and domes which symbolise Muslim faith in architecture, are built on the principle of Hindus corbel

Supreme Court Building

August 4, 1958, marked the fulfilment of the dream of Sir Maurice Gwyer, a former Chief Justice of the Federal Court He wanted the highest judicial court to be housed in premises worthy of its high station From that day (August 4, 1958) the Supreme Court began dispensing justice in the new building on Tilak Marg. The Supreme Court had so far been housed in a wing of Parliament House in close proximity to the Central Secretariat It is said that when Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru visited the Court he remarked that it was desirable that the shadow of the executive should not fall on the Supreme Court He wanted it to be located away from the seat of government

The Supreme Court of India occupies a unique position in the national life of India, as the highest judicial body, it has made tremendous strides since 1938, when the Federal Court was set up The monumental three-storey Supreme Court of India building is situated on a triangle between Tilak Marg and Mathura Road. Built in the Indo-classical style of architecture, the Hall of Justice is one of the most imposing structures in the capital With a central dome 117 feet high, the building has a total floor space of 20 lakhs square feet An attractive feature of the building is its spacious verandah encircling the first floor with its 86 pillars capped with ornamental designs Its east-west and north wings rise 45 feet above ground level

Suraj Kund*

This extensive tank, lined with continuous flights of steps in stone, is situated about a mile and a quarter from Lal Kuan on the Badarpur-Mehrauli road The place can be reached either from Badarpur or Qutb It is better however, to go from the Qutb side A sprawling ridge, a bridle path nestling between rocks and trees, a rivulet to be crossed and then at the end of the journey the lovely sight of a large semi-circular tank skirted by terraced steps Looking beyond, one sees only the irregular contours of the ridge as far as the eye can turn A sight more magnificent near Delhi has yet to be discovered The rocky country around Suraj Kund embraces the site of an ancient town which, except for the tank and a stone well near the village of Lakkarpur, has now completely disappeared

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*Though in Haryana, it has been included because of its close proximity to Delhi :

Nothing is known about the ancient history of Suraj Kund as it does not appear to be referred to by any of the known historians It is believed to have been built-in-686 A D., by Suraj Pal, son of Anang Pal I In plan, Suraj Kund is segment, the chord being on the west side It was fed by a natural nullah at the north-west corner and is provided with a broad flagged ramp on the north-east About the centre of the east and west sides is a broad stair-case, enclosed by flanking walls of plain stone work This pleasure tank was built for the sport of royalty Here, the royal parties sported and feated Surrounded by a shady grove of mango trees it also afforded adequate recreational facilities during summer days Today, it echoes only to the weired cry of water fowl and the call of the herdsmen grazing their cattle in the verdant pastures formed by the receding water Like many ancient landmarks Suraj Kund bears its share of myths A small spring to the south-west is said to produce water with healing properties and at the south-west corner a *pipal* tree is held as sacred It is an ideal place for those wanting an escape from the hustle and bustle of a city It is popular with the picknickers On July 21, after the rains, an annual fair is held here Men and women from the neighbouring villages, bedecked in their fineries, flock to the tank for a day of festivity They make offerings to the pipal tree and drink the water of the spring They are the only link between the Suraj Kund of today and the pleasure resort of Anang Pal

Talkatora Garden

This park, situated at the north end of Willingdon Crescent, is so called on account of a tank (Tal) at its west end, which is enclosed by hilly ground, hence the allusion to a cup 'Katora' It was originally surrounded by walls which are ruined The park measures about 470 yards east to west and about 210 yards north to south, excluding the width of the top terrace In the centre of the park there appears to have been a baradari At the northern end of the park, overlooking the tank, there is a high terrace, flanked at each end by double-storeyed octagonal pavilions surrounded by domes It is said that the enclosure was a Shikargah of Muhammad Shah, and from its position this does not seem to be improbable This park assumed great importance when hundreds of University students from different parts of the country assembled here for the annual youth festival—known as the Inter-University Youth Festival The open-air theatre at Talkatora garden used to be packed to capacity to witness an exciting programme of group dances by several University groups hailing from

such widely scattered areas as Shantiniketan and Baroda. The stage has been so designed so as to obviate the use of curtains while scenes are being changed An additional attraction of the garden is a beautiful swimming pool recently constructed by the New Delhi Municipal Committee for the use of the public It remains open during summer only.

Tughluqabad

Ghiyas-ud-din Tughluq, shortly after ascending the throne of Delhi in 1320 A D, selected Tughluqabad as the site for his capital on the edge of a rocky outcrop, five miles from Qutb Minar For strategic reasons, Ghiyas-ud-din Tughluq built a massive fort around the city Tughluqabad standing on its rocky platform, with scarped sides, sloping bastions and upper line of battlements, to a height of 90 feet, is one of the most striking ruins at Delhi

The all metalled road to the fort of Tughluqabad provides one of the finest drives in Delhi Shaded by trees on both sides and enclosed between wide barly and wheat fields, with the ruins of a tomb or a temple thrown in here and there, the road from Qutb takes one right to the very door of the historic fort Of this fort nothing remains except the bastioned walls and some underground chambers but the lofty gateways, triple-storeyed towers and the remnants of the massive ramparts still give it an air of lonely grandeur The city is completely in ruins In fact one doubts how far it is justifiable to call the suburb of the fort of Tughluqabad a city It is true that the wall of Tughluqabad has a circuit of four miles and encloses a large area but much of this was taken up by the inner citadel and the palace Moreover, the place hardly appears to have been inhabited for more than a few years It is, therefore, the fort of Tughluqabad which is of prime importance The fort is a half hexagon in shape Its three faces are about three-quarters of a mile in length each The base is one and a half mile The whole circuit is about four miles

The fort stands on a rocky height It is built of massive blocks of stone These are so large and heavy that they must have been quarried or the spot The walls slope rapidly inwards, like the Egyptian buildings The ramparts' walls are pierced with loop-holes, which command, the foot of the walls The walls are crowned with a line of rude battlements of solid stone which are also provided with loop-holes The walls are rugged for they are built of large plainly dressed stones, and there is no ornament of any kind. Nevertheless, the very vast size of the fort and its

great strength and solidity give to Tughluqabad an air of stern and massive grandeur, which is both striking and impressive The fort has 13 gates and there are three inner gates to the citadel It has seven tanks for water There are many ruins of large buildings According to Sayyed Ahmed the construction of the fort began in 1321 A D., and was completed in 1323 A D, (i e. in two years) It is generally agreed that the work was completed by Tughluq himself, therefore it is obvious that the work of construction must have been pushed on with great vigour The fort of Tughluqabad built in such great hurry, has a grandeur of its own It has a striking appearance for it is gigantic in proportion and strength and is severly grand in simplicity of construction According to the tradition, the ruin of the city and fort of Tughluqabad was brought about by the curse of Sheikh Nizam-ud-din Auliya (due to his bitter quarrel with Ghiyas-ud-din Tughluq) that these places would either be inhabited by Gujjars, or be abandoned—"Ya base Gujar, Ya rahe ujjar" The places were certainly abandoned within a few years of their shortlived glory

Across the road and facing the fort is the mausoleum of Ghiyas-ud-din Tughluq Originally, it stood within an artificial lake, fed by the over-flowing of the Hauz Shamsi, and by some natural drainage channels, and was connected with the fort of Tughluqabad by a viaduct 600 feet long, borne on 27 arches With its sides reflected in the lake it must have presented a spectacle of unusual beauty In fact, this picturesque building is worthy of the stern old warrior, who laid the foundation of the Tughluq dynasty It is rather difficult to improve on Fergusson's description of the mausoleum "When the stern old warrior, Tughluq Shah, founded the new Delhi, which still bears his name, he built a tomb, not in a garden as was usually the case, but in a strongly fortified citadel in the middle of an artificial lake The sloping walls and almost Egyptian solidity of this Mausoleum, combined with the bold and massive towers of the fortifications that surround it, form a picture of a warrior's tomb unrivalled anywhere, and a singular contrast with the elegant and luxuriant garden tombs of the more settled and peaceful dynasties that succeeded"

The mausoleum—a fortress--like structure—is an irregular pentagon in plan It is surrounded by a battlemented wall and fortified at the angles the bastions surrounded by cupolas A high and massive gateway of red sandstone gives access to the mausoleum The red sandstone gateway, with its sloping face and jambs built in the Pathan style, offers a pleasing contrast to the dark walls and rounded towers in which it stands, and the trees

which overshadow it. The white marble dome—surmounting the building—rises from a low octagonal drum and is covered by a red sandstone finial The mausoleum is a landmark in the history of Muslim architecture in India for it is the earliest building of which the walls have a very decided slope The fort of Adilabad, stretching from the south-east corner of Tughluqabad, and connected with it by a rubble masonry causeway, is in ruins. It bears a close resemblance to the fort of Tughluqabad, for, it is built in the same style with sloping walls of huge blocks of stone The fort is attributed to Muhammad Tughluq, after whom it is known as Adilabad—Adil being the title which the Emperor had assumed

The fort contained the famous Qasr-i-Hazar Satun (place of a Thousand Pillars) According to Sayyid Ahmad Khan, the palace was "not unlikely three-storeyed", with pillars cut out of marble But Ibn-Batuta, who seems to be the more reliable authority in this case, describes the hall of audience as an immense chamber of "a thousand columns These pillars are of varnished wood, and support a wooden roof, painted in the most admirable style" These three buildings—the fort of Tughluqabad, the tomb of Ghiyas-ud-din Tughluq and the fort of Adilabad—are fine specimens of early Tughluq style of architecture Under the Tughluqs the Indo-Islamic architecture entered a new and austere phase largely because of a reaction against the extravagance of the Khaljis and partly because of financial difficulties Rich ornamentation and elaboration of details, so characteristic of the Khalji monuments, were replaced by severe and puritanical simplicity under the Tughluqs Red sandstone and marble, so pleasing to the eye, were substituted by rubble and plaster The walls of the Tughluq buildings were monotonously bare Other chief features of the Tughluq architecture were battered walls, squinch arches, battlemented neckings and crestings and multiplicity of small domes This severely puritanical style had, nevertheless, certain virtues—its vigour its purposefulness, its fine vaulting and its readiness to adopt old structural features to its requirements No one can fail to be impressed with the ajelopean walls and huge bastions of the Tughluqabad fort, which give an idea of its sturdy vigour and impressive grandeur

Vigyan Bhavan

Built to accommodate large national and international conferences, the Bhavan, located on Maulana Azad Road, within a mile of the Central Secretariat, is one of the finest buildings recently constructed in the capital This three-storeyed building,

constructed on a plot measuring 3 8 acres, presents a look of perfect architectural design and symmetry Construction of the Bhavan at a cost of about Rs 86 lakhs was completed in 1956. The building consists of an auditorium with a seating capacity of 1,100, two commission rooms with 300 seats each and five small rooms with a seating capacity of 80 each, besides office blocks and lounges on all the three floors The building has many unique features but the main entrance, designed in the tradition of Buddhist architecture, is perhaps the most striking The arch (at the main gate) made of Italian marble was, however, not considered to be in keeping with the grandeur of the building, and was therefore replaced in 1959, by an arch in rare Indian marble i e, Baroda green marble The Bhavan has been the venue of several international conferences since 1956.

Vijay Chowk

This famous piazza, formerly known as the Great Place, is situated at the foot of the Secretariat buildings, a mile and a quarter from the Memorial Arch It is a rectangle with elliptical ends, 26½ acres in extent At either end of the place are set three fountains Each of these fountains is 240 feet in length and consists of two circular sheets of water formed by an oblong on a slightly lower level The blown spray of the fountains turns the red stone of which they are made into a rich rust colour These fountains are the most beautiful features of New Delhi

Yog Maya Temple

This temple is situated near the Qutb Minar, about 260 yards from the Iron Pillar According to tradition, it was originally built in the time of Yudhishthira and dedicated to Yog Maya, the sister of Lord Krishna The existing shrine is, however, said to have been built, possibly on its ancient site, in 1827 A D, by Syed Mal a noble in the time of Akabar II The temple and twenty one other associated buildings stand within a walled enclosure 400 feet square Most of these buildings were also built by Syed Mal While the existing shrine has no pretension to beauty, its distinguishing feature is its truncated pyramid with its gilt-edged pinnacle It is about 42 feet high from its marble-covered floor to the top of the pinnacle A doorway with a marble frame gives access to a room 17 feet square The sacred stone covered with cloth, is placed on a marble well, two feet wide and a foot deep Over this stone are suspended from the ceiling a few *pankhas*, which are presented to the shrine on the occasions of the Sair-e-Gul Faroshan fair Inanimate

guardians of this shrine are two stone tigers kept in an iron cage (five feet square and ten feet high) about eight feet in front of the temple Yog Maya is a goddess of austerity and so white flowers and sweetmeats are acceptable to her, her devotees must eschew wine and meat While every Tuesday there is a mela in the temple grounds, the big event of the year is the Sair-e-Gul Faroshan, the flower-sellers' fair It is one of Delhi's oldest and most picturesque festivals and within recent years has received State patronage Every year in the month of September the sleepy town of Mehrauli springs to life as people gather there to celebrate the Festival of Flowers After parading through the narrow streets of the town the processionists, carrying large fans embroidered with fresh flowers, arrive at the temple to pay homage to the goddess of purity

Zauq's Grave

There are few in Delhi who can tell where the body of Sheikh Ibrahim Zauq, the famous Urdu poet (poet laureate of the court of Bahadur Shah, the last Mughal King) The grave in a graveyard near Qutab Road is without a tombstone It was once encircled by four walls, and this remains the only indication of his tomb

Zoological Park

The Delhi Zoological Park, situated in spacious surroundings in the shadow of the crumbling walls of Purana Qila, was formally declared open on November 1, 1959 The Zoo was started under the Second Plan and included in the subsequent plans for expansion Covering an area of 250 acres, it will be the biggest in the East and the second biggest in the world when completed The total cost of the park is expected to be about Rs 1 5 crores

Planned and designed by a well-known Zoo Director of West Germany, Hagenbeck the Zoo has some distinctive features The animal enclosures provide natural surroundings to the animals where they can move freely and there is no visible barrier between the animals and spectators because the enclosures are surrounded by a water channel As one enters the park, a spectacular view presents itself—a two mile water channel meandering its way through the enclosures The Zoo will have special enclosures representing the flora and fauna of different countries There are enclosures for elephants, tigers bears deer, wild bisons, buffalows nilgai, rhino, kangaroos besides an ape house and aviaries for vultures, eagles, cranes and other birds There is

the deer park with horned and spotted deer ready to make friends with the spectators from a distance There is also the white buck and the spotlessly white peacock There are brown bears from Japan, cranes from China, the flightless emu from Australia, and tigers from Burma The lazy lions snarl only if provoked while the ever-watchful tigers strut about for all, to admire their glossy hides But the most poular inmates are the bears The gambol about in their spacious pit and seem ever in need their glossy hides But the most popular inmates are the bears. rise on their hind legs and look up pleadingly for nourishment and seldom are they disappointed.

The future planning to beautify the park contain the following provisions for having an aquarium for various types of fish, a serrentarium for all varieties of snakes and an insectarium for rearing and keeping of insects In another section, glazed models of extinct pre-historic fauna like the mammoth and dinosaures will be displayed The Zoo has already become one of the biggest recreational centres in the capital

Directory of Towns & Villages in The Union Territory of Delhi

Towns

The definition of 'Urban' as adopted at the 1971 census is as follows :

( ) All places with a Municipality, Corporation or Cantonment or Notified Town Area

(b) All other places which satisfy the following criteria :

(i) a minimum population of 5,000,

(ii) atleast 75 per cent of male working population is non-agricultural,

(iii) a density of population of atleast 400 per sq. Km (i. e 1,000 per sq. mile)

The Urban areas of Delhi District though contiguous are administered by three local bodies, namely (i) New Delhi Municipal Committee (ii) Delhi Cantonment Board and (iii) Delhi Municipal Corporation According to well-defined boundaries of the first two towns and that of Urban part of the third, the following three towns were adopted for the 1971 Census

1 New Delhi	Area under the jurisdiction of New Delhi Municipal Committee.
2 Delhi Cantt	Area under the jurisdiction of Delhi Cantt. Board.
3. Delhi Municipal Corporation (Urban).	Urban area under the jurisdiction of Delhi Municipal Corporation.

Villages

Delhi Tahsil (156)

Sl. No.	Name of the Village
1	Akbar Pur Majra
2	Ali Pur
3	Babar Pur
4	Badar Pur
5	Badli
6	Bakarwala
7	Bankauli
8	Bankner
9	Bapraula
10	Barwala
11	Bagar Garh
12	Baqiabad
13	Bawana
14	Bazid Pur Thakran
15	Behari Pur
16	Bhakhtawar Pur
17	Bhalswa Jahangir Pur
18	Bhorgarh
19	Bodh Pur Bija Pur
20	Budhan Pur
21	Burari
22	Chand Pur
23	Chatesar
24	Chilla Saroda Banger
25	Chilla Saroda Khadar
26	Dallo Pura
27	Darya Pur Kalan
28	Darya Pur Khurd

Sl. No.	Name of the Village
29	Dayal Pur
30	Deorala
31	Dhansa
32	Dichaon Kalan
33	Dindar Pur
34	Fateh Pur Jat
35	Garhi Khasru
36	Garhi Mendu
37	Garhi Rindhala
38	Gharoli
39	Gharonda Neemka Banger alias Patpar Ganj
40	Gharonda Neemka Khadar
41	Ghalib Pur
42	Gheora
43	Ghoga
44	Gokal Pur
45	Goman Hera
46	Gopal Pur
47	Haider Pur
48	Hamid Pur
49	Hareoli
50	Hiranki
51	Holambi Kalan
52	Holambi Khurd
53	Ibrahim Pur
54	Iradat Nagar alias Naya Bans
55	Isapur
56	Jafarabad
57	Jagat Pur (Burari)
58	Jafar Pur Kalan

Sl. No.	Name of the Village
59	Jafar Pur alias Hiran Kudna
60	Jhangola
61	Jharoda Kalan
62	Jharoda Mazra Burari
63	Jhul Jhuli
64	Jonti
65	Jiwan Pur alias Johri Pur
66	Kamal Pur
67	Kanjhawala
68	Kankar Khera
69	Kerala
70	Kair
71	Katewra
72	Khajoori Khas
73	Kham Pur
74	Kham Pur Dhani
75	Khar Khari Nahar
76	Khera
77	Khera Dabar
78	Khera Kalan
79	Khera Khurd
80	Khor Jat
81	Khor Punjab
82	Kondli
83	Kotla
84	Kureni
85	Lad Pur
86	Lam Pur
87	Libas Pur
88	Malik Pur Zer (Najaf Garh)

Sl. No.	Name of the Village
89	Mandauli
90	Mir Pur Turk
91	Mitraon
92	Mohd. Pur Majri
93	Mohd Pur Ramzan Pur
94	Mukand Pur
95	Mukhmel Pur
96	Mundhela Kalan
97	Mundhela Khurd
98	Mungesh Pur
99	Mustafabad
100	Nahar Pur
101	Nangal Thakran
102	Nangli Poona
103	Nangli Sakrawati
104	Neelwal
105	Nizam Pur Rasid Pur
106	Ochandi
107	Palla
108	Pansali
109	Pehlad Pur Banger
110	Pitam Pura
111	Pooth Khurd
112	Pur
113	Qadi Pur
114	Qallak Pur
115	Qarawal Nagar
116	Qazi Pur
117	Qutab Garh
118	Raota

Sl. No.	Name of the Village
119	Raza Pur Kalan
120	Roshan Pura alias Dichaon Khurd
121	Saadat Pur Gujran
122	Saadat Pur Musalmanan
123	Saba Pur
124	Sahi Pur
125	Sahibabad Daulat Pur
126	Salem Pur Majra (Burari)
127	Sanoth
128	Saoda
129	Sarang Pur
130	Shah Pur Garhi
131	Shakar Pur Baramad
132	Shama Pur
133	Shamas Pur
134	Shamas Pur Khalsa
135	Shanjar Pur
136	Sher Pur
137	Sher Pur (Deri)
138	Singhola
139	Singhu
140	Siras Pur
141	Salah Pur Majra
142	Sultan Pur Dabas
143	Sunger Pur
144	Surakh Pur
145	Surera
146	Taj Pur Kalan
147	Tehri Daulat Pur
148	Tigi Pur

Sl No	Name of the Village
149	Tikri Kalan
150	Tikri Khurd
151	Tukhmir Pur
152	Ujwa
153	Wazirabad
154	Yakut Pur
155	Ziauddin Pur
156	Zind Pur

Mehrauli Tahsil (102)

1	Aali
2	Ambhar Hai
3	Asalat Pur Khawad
4	Asola
5	Badhosra
6	Bagrola
7	Bamnoli
8	Begumpur
9	Bhartal
10	Bhati
11	Bijwasan
12	Binda Pur
13	Chandan Hola
14	Chhattar Pur
15	Chhawla
16	Dabri
17	Daulat Pur
18	Deoli
19	Dera
20	Dhulsiras
21	Fateh Puri Beri

Sl. No.	Name of the Village
22	Gadai Pur
23	Garhi Piran
24	Ghitorni
25	Goela Khurd
26	Hasan Pur
27	Hastsal
28	Jait Pur
29	Jawala Heri
30	Jhatikra
31	Jona Pur
32	Kakrola
33	Kangan Heri
34	Kapas Hera
35	Khar Khari Jatmal
36	Khar Khari Rond
37	Kirari Suleman Nagar
38	Kotla Mahigiran
39	Kusum Pur
40	Lado Sarai
41	Lohar Heri
42	Madan Pur Dabas
43	Maidan Garhi
44	Mahipal Pur
45	Malik Pur Lohi alias Rangpuri
46	Mandi
47	Manghol Pur Kalan
48	Masud Pur
49	Manghol Pur Khurd
50	Mithe Pur
51	Mirza Pur

Sl. No.	Name of the Village
52	Molar Band
53	Moradabad Pahari
54	Matola
55	Mubarak Pur Dabas
56	Mundka
57	Nanak Heri
58	Nangal Devat
59	Nangloi Jat
60	Nangloi Sayed
61	Nasir Pur
62	Nawada Majra Hastsal
63	Nilothi
64	Neb Sarai
65	Nithari
66	Palam
67	Paprawat
68	Pindwala Kalan
69	Pindwala Khurd
70	Pochan Pur
71	Pooth Kalan
72	Pul Pehlad
73	Qamruddin Nagar
74	Qutab Pur
75	Ragho Pur
76	Rajokri
77	Raj Pur Khurd
78	Ranhola Shah Pur
79	Rani Khera
80	Rasool Pur
81	Raza Pur Khurd

Sl. No.	Name of the Village
82	Rewla Khan Pur
83	Rithala
84	Sagar Pur
85	Sahu Pur
86	Saidabad
87	Salah Pur
88	Saidul Ajaib
89	Sambhalka
90	Satberi
91	Shahabad Mohd Pur
92	Shahur Pur
93	Shikar Pur
94	Sultan Pur
95	Sultan Pur Majra
96	Taj Pul
97	Taj Pur Khurd
98	Tigri
99	Tilang Pur Kotla
100	Toghan Pur
101	Yahya Nagar
102	Zin Pur

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71—1 Delhi Adm./73

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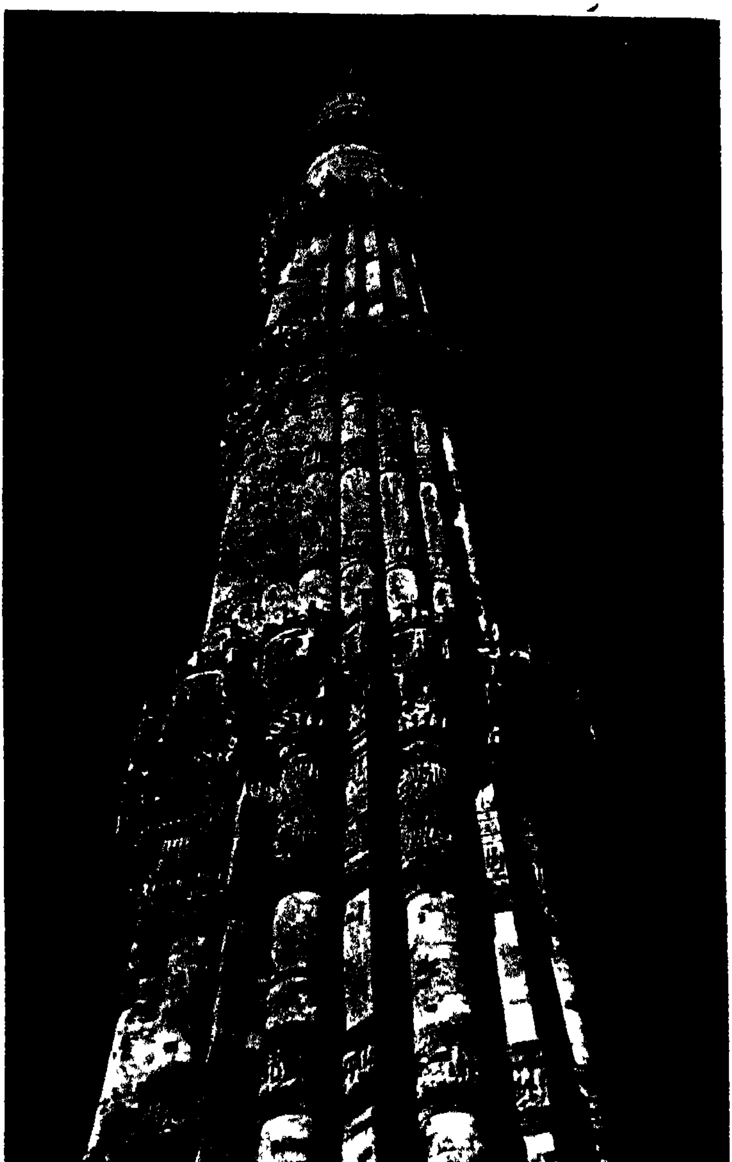
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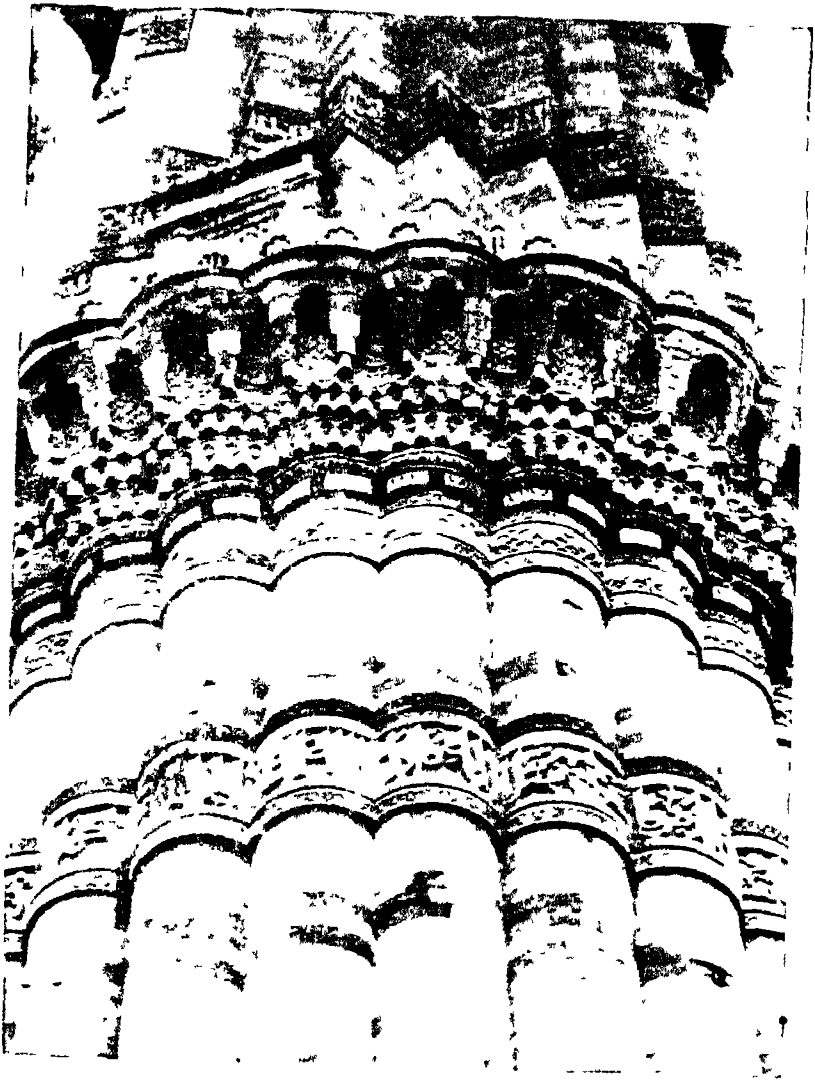
Rajya Sabha Debates, Volume XIX, 1957.

INDEX

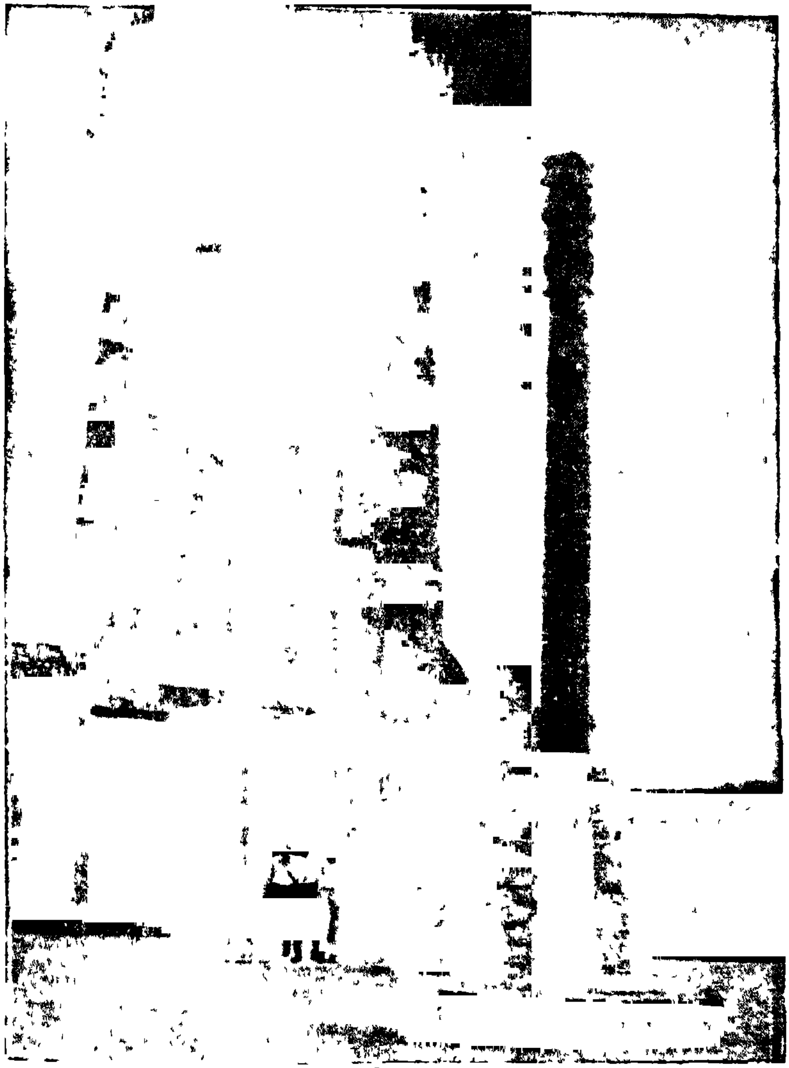
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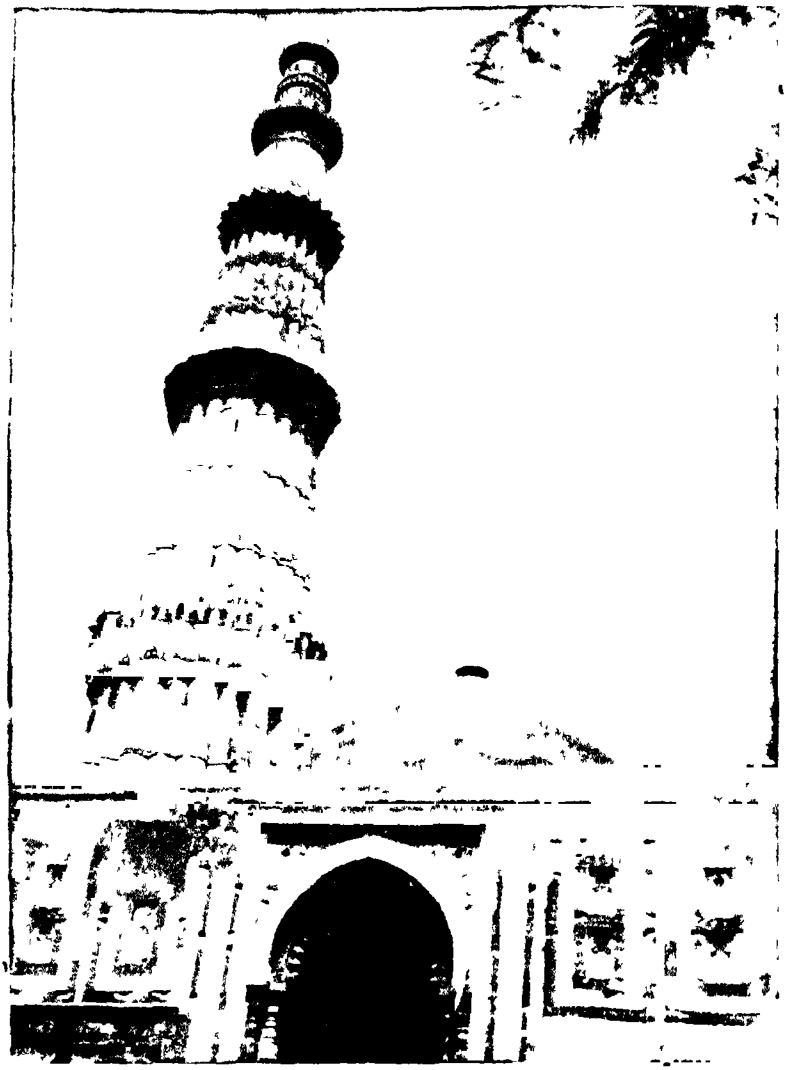
Qutb Minar



Close up of the Qutb



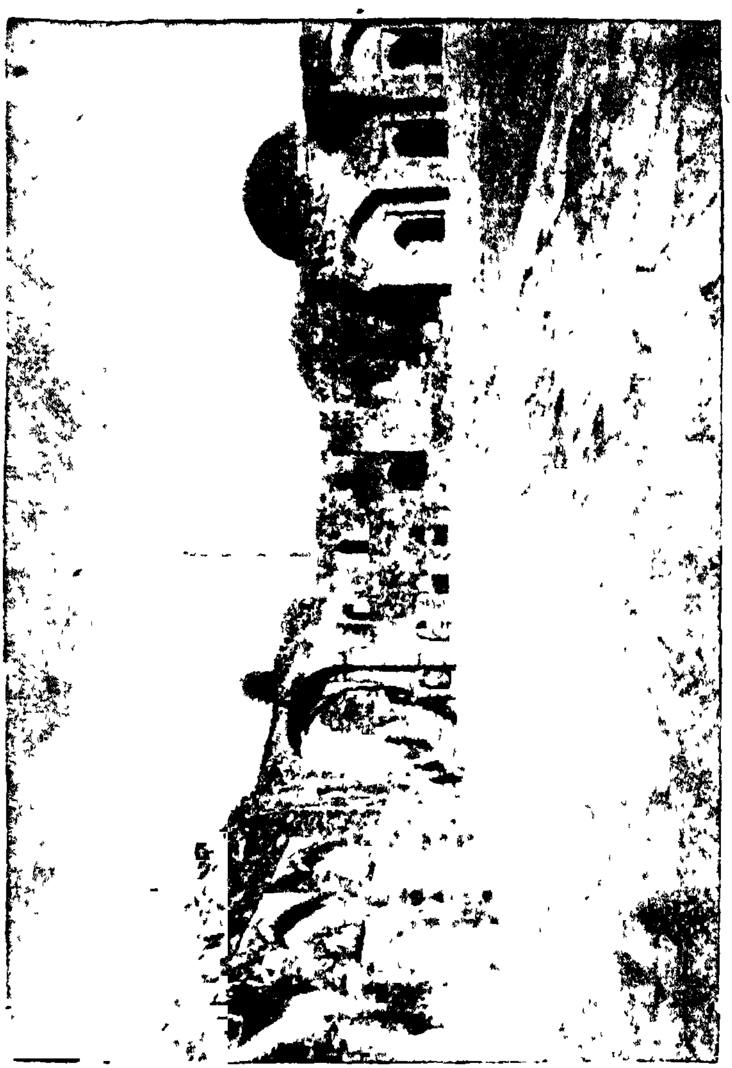
Iron Pillar near Qutb



Ala-i-Darwaza with Qutb in the background



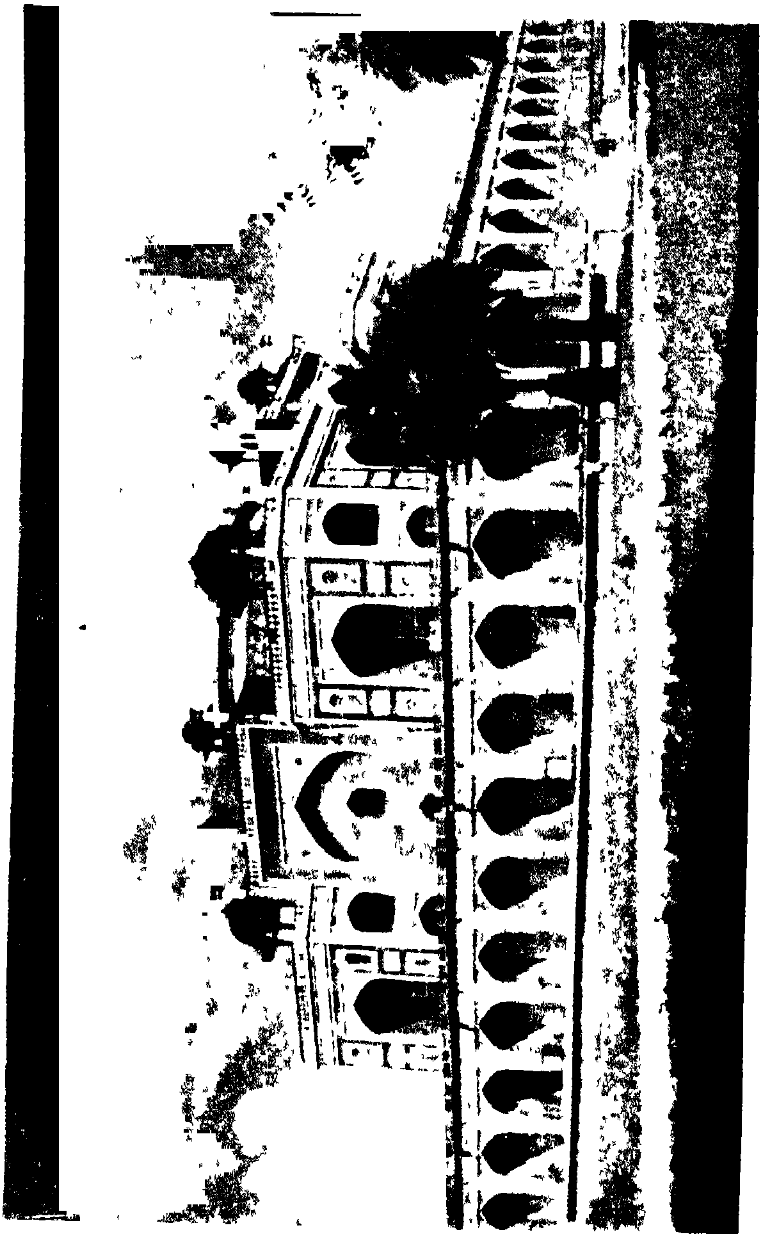
Tughluqabad Fort



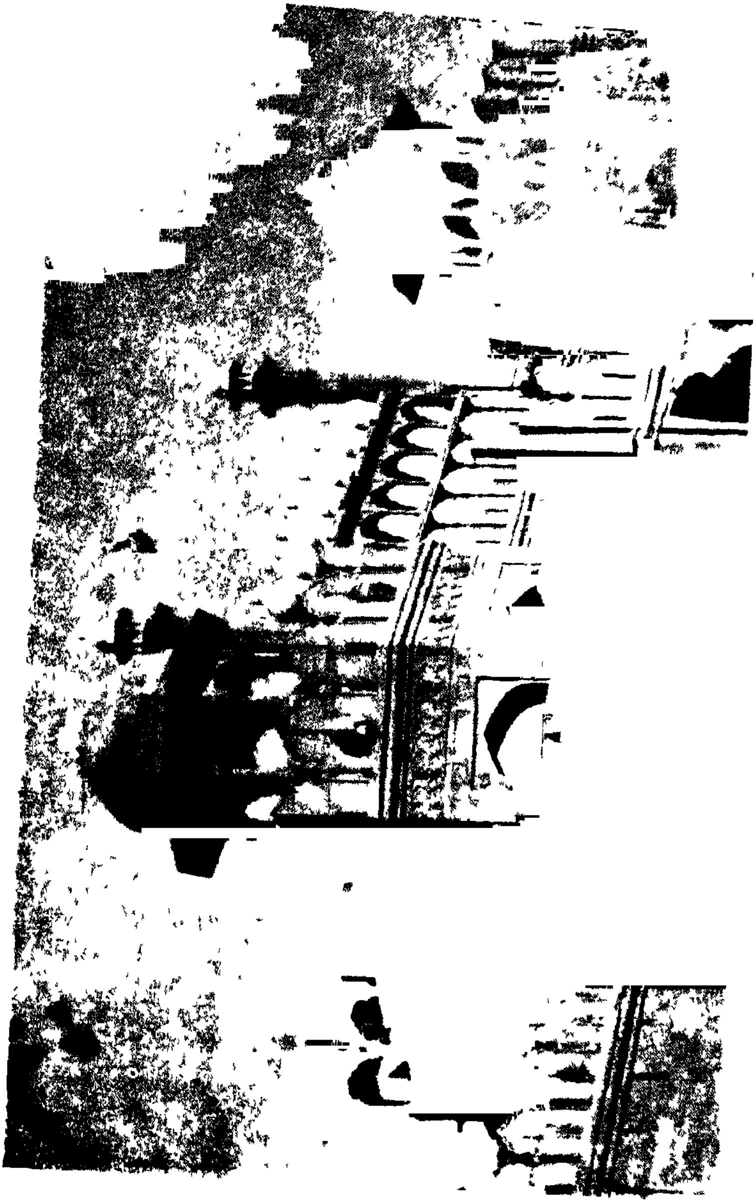
Firuz Shah Kotla and the Pillar of Asoka



Purana Qila



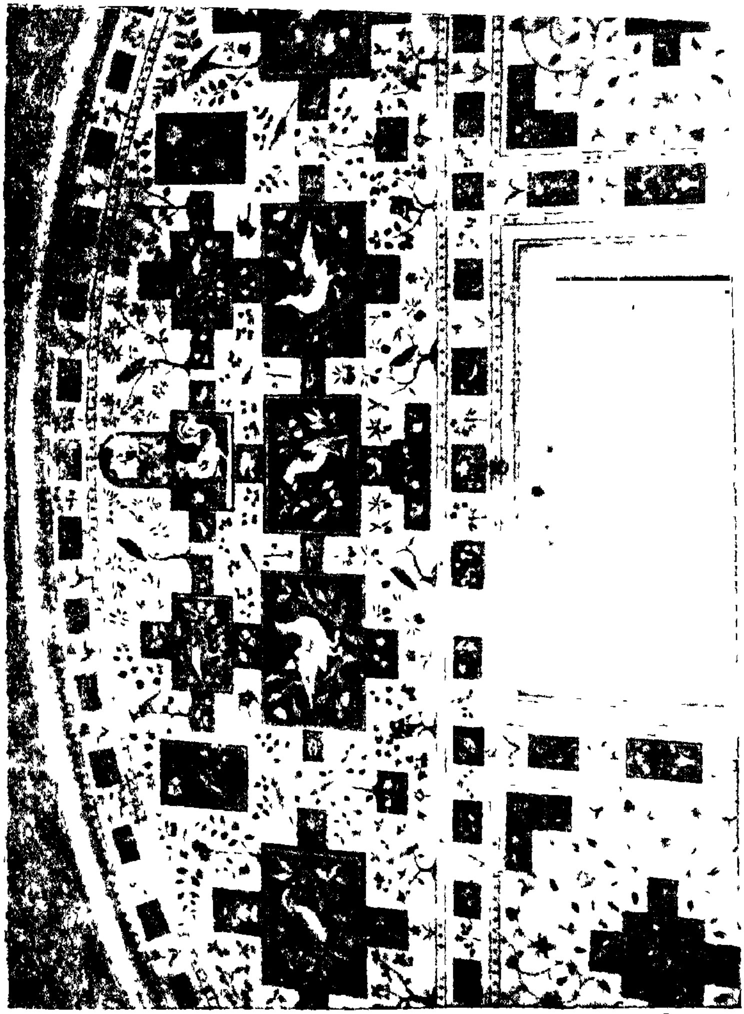
Humayun Tomb



Red Fort



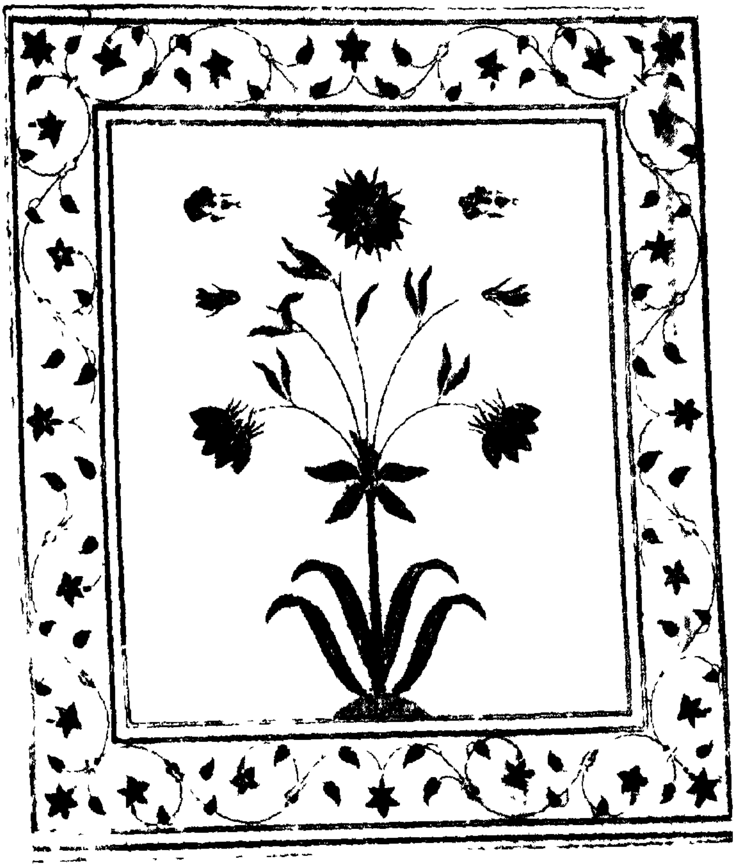
Diwan-i-Am



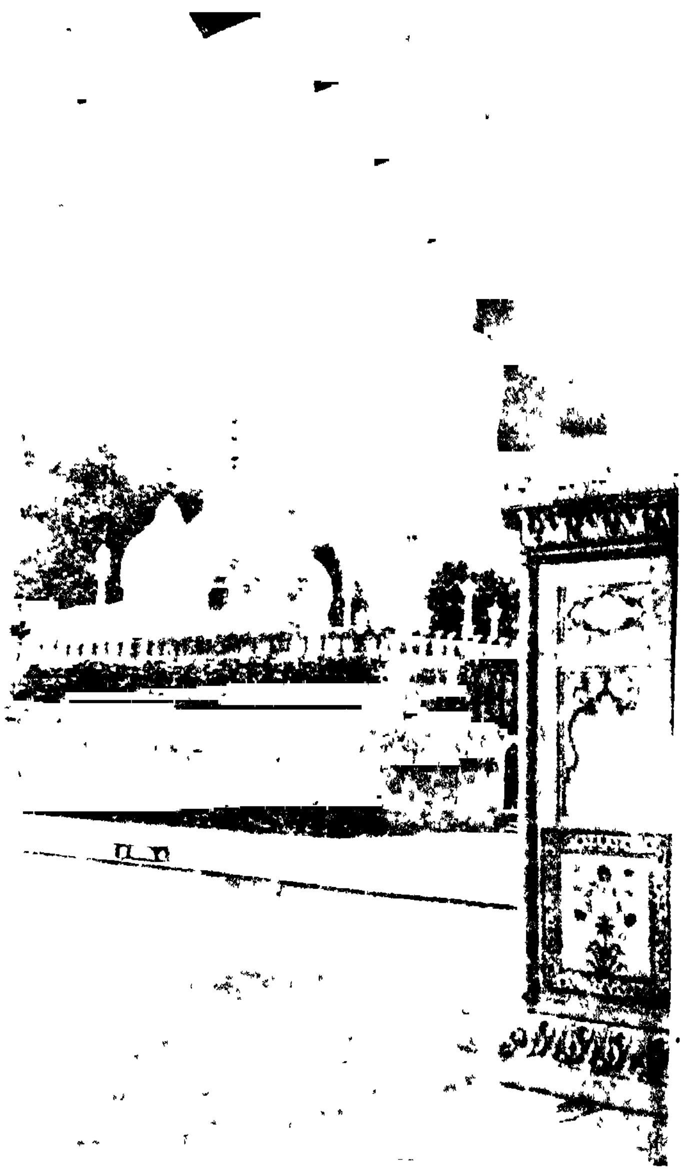
Pietra Dura work in Diwan-i-Am



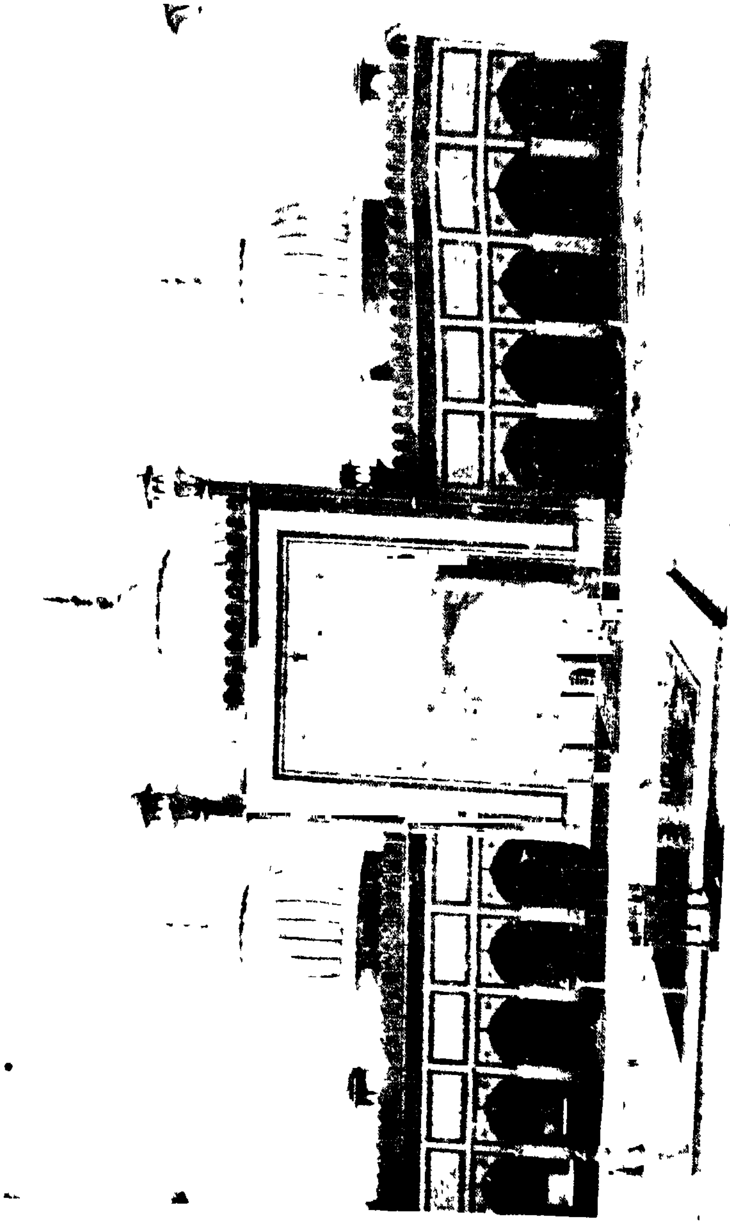
Diwan-i-Khas



Inlay work on Pillars of Diwan-i-Khas



Moti Masjid



Jama Masjid

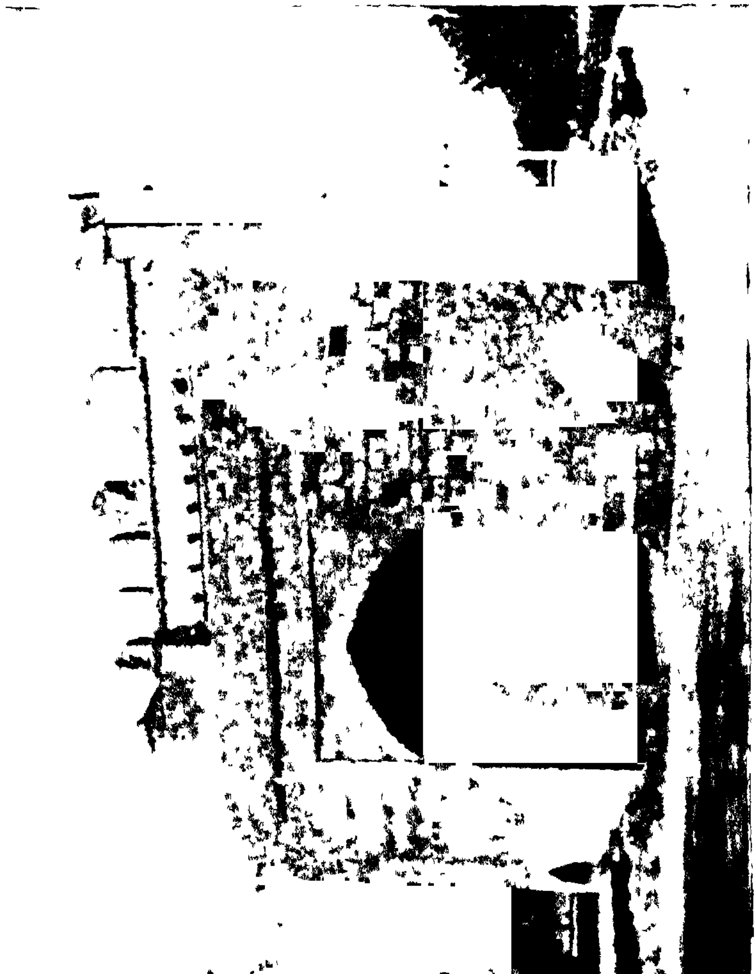


Jantar Mantar



D[illegible] of [illegible], Mughal Emperor (1806-37). He was the son of [illegible] II and his jurisdiction was confined to the precincts of the [illegible] Fort. Besides the courtiers and nobles his sons Mirza Jahangir, Bahadur Shah II and Mirza Babar as well as Mr. Seton the British Resident are seen standing. He was buried at Mehrauli.

Durbar of Akbar Shah II



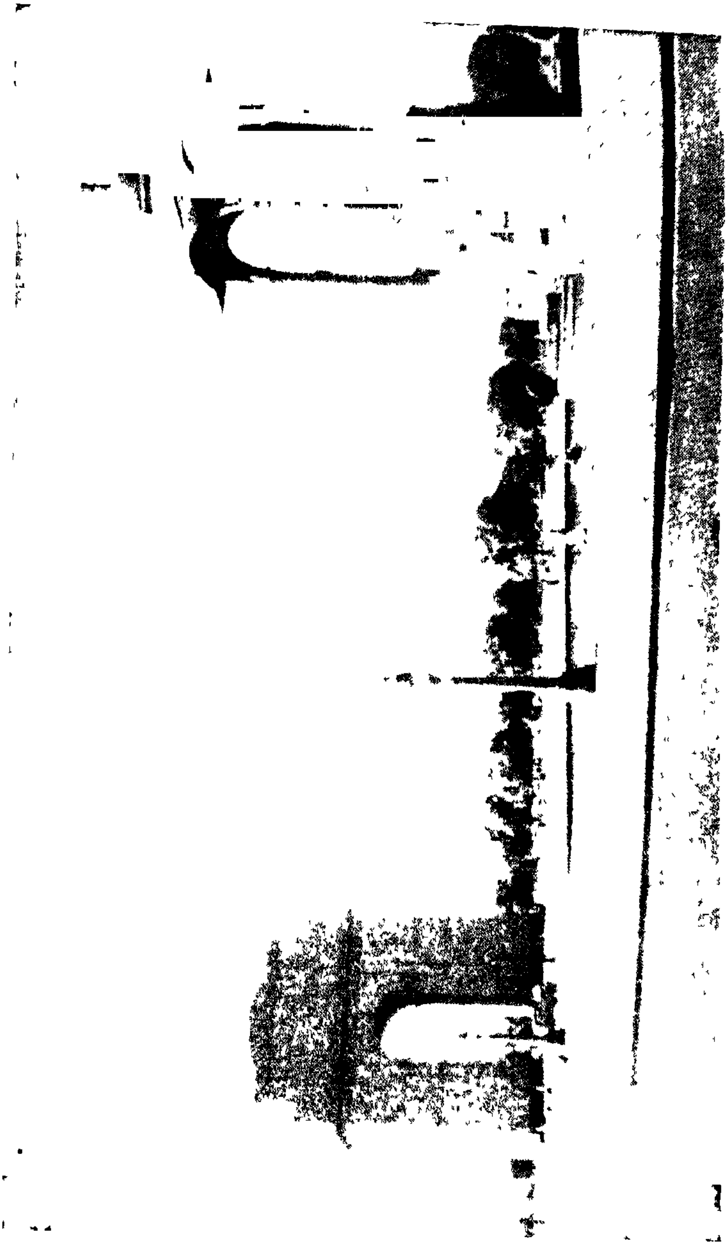
Khuni Darwaza



Parliament House



Vijay Chowk



India Gate

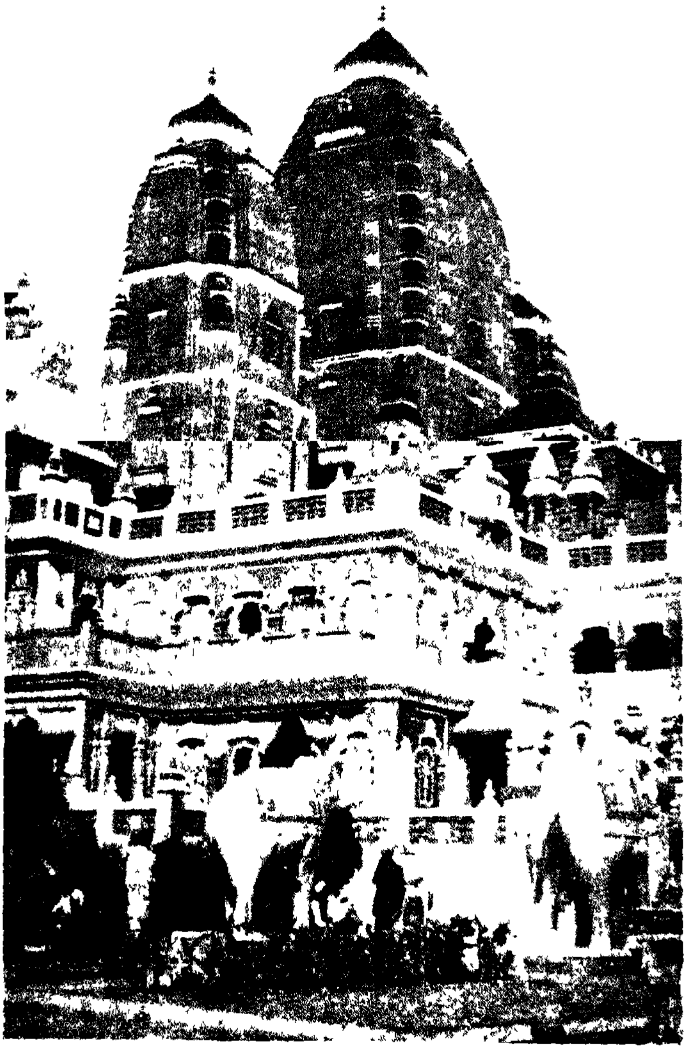




Roshanara Garden

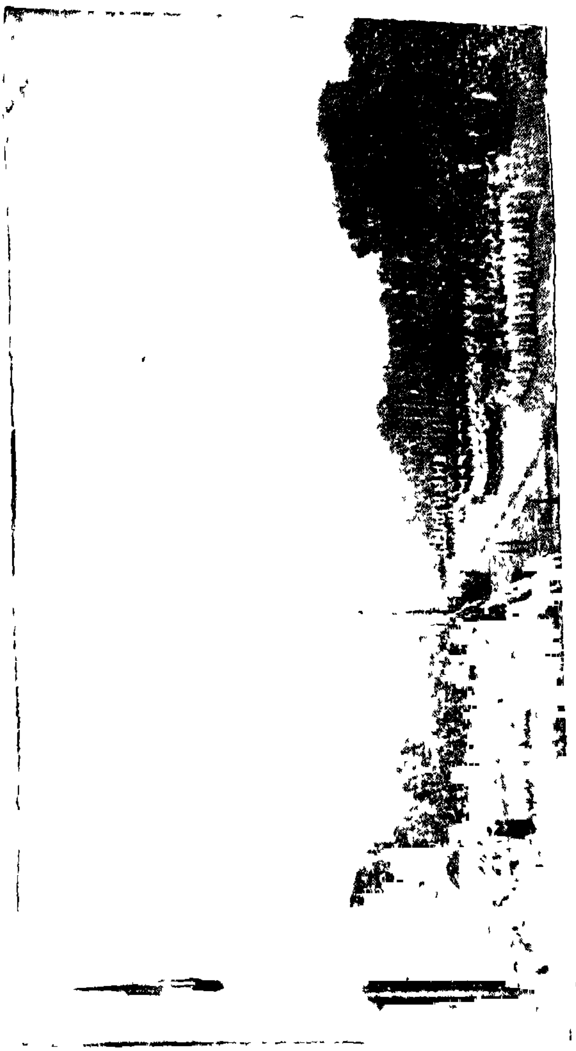


Gurdwara Sisganj

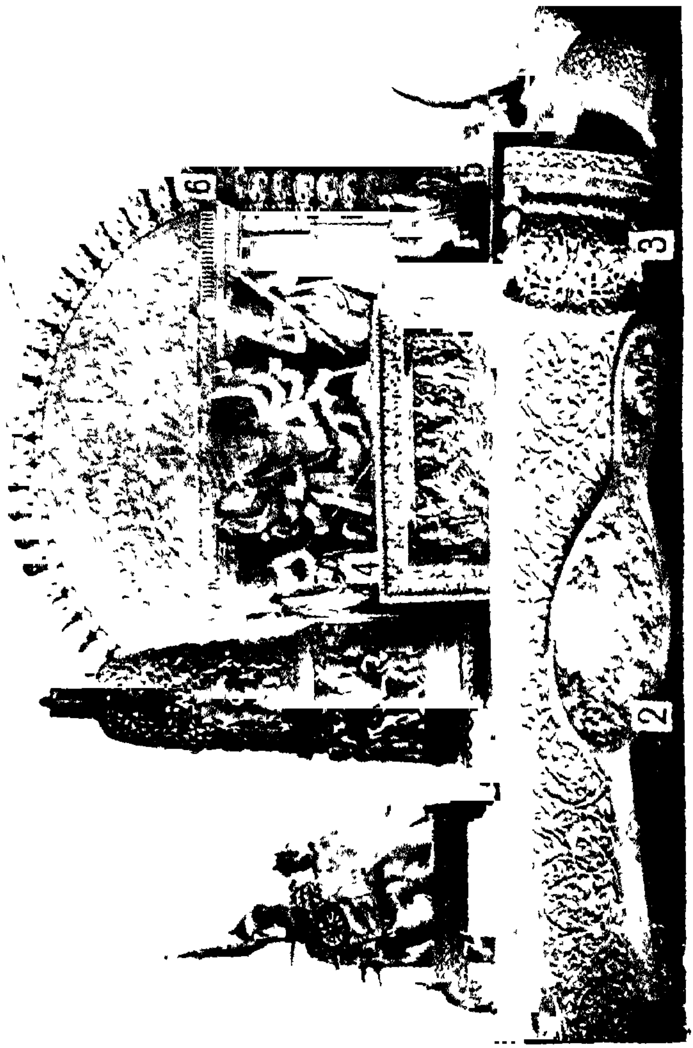


Laxmi Narayan Temple

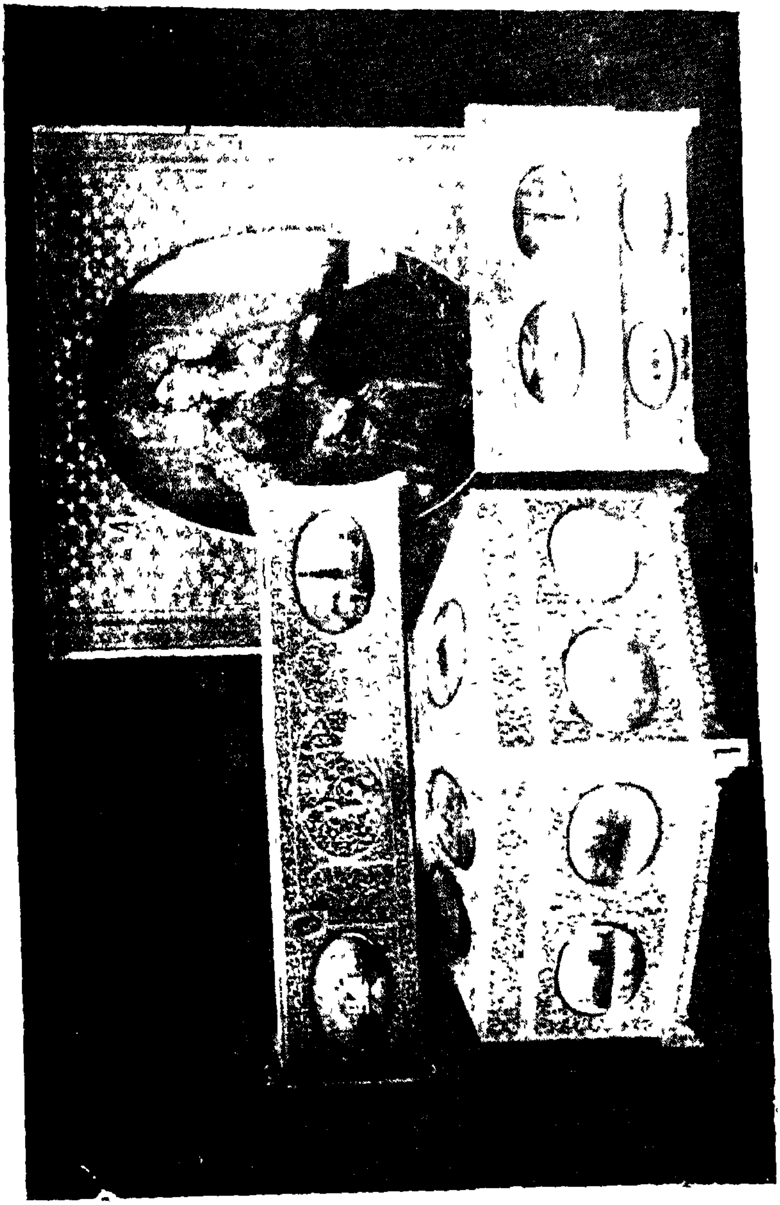




Republic Day Parade



Typical Ivories of Delhi—Entries in the Indian Arts Exhibition, held at Qudsia Bagh Delhi in 1903 at the time of Second Durbar



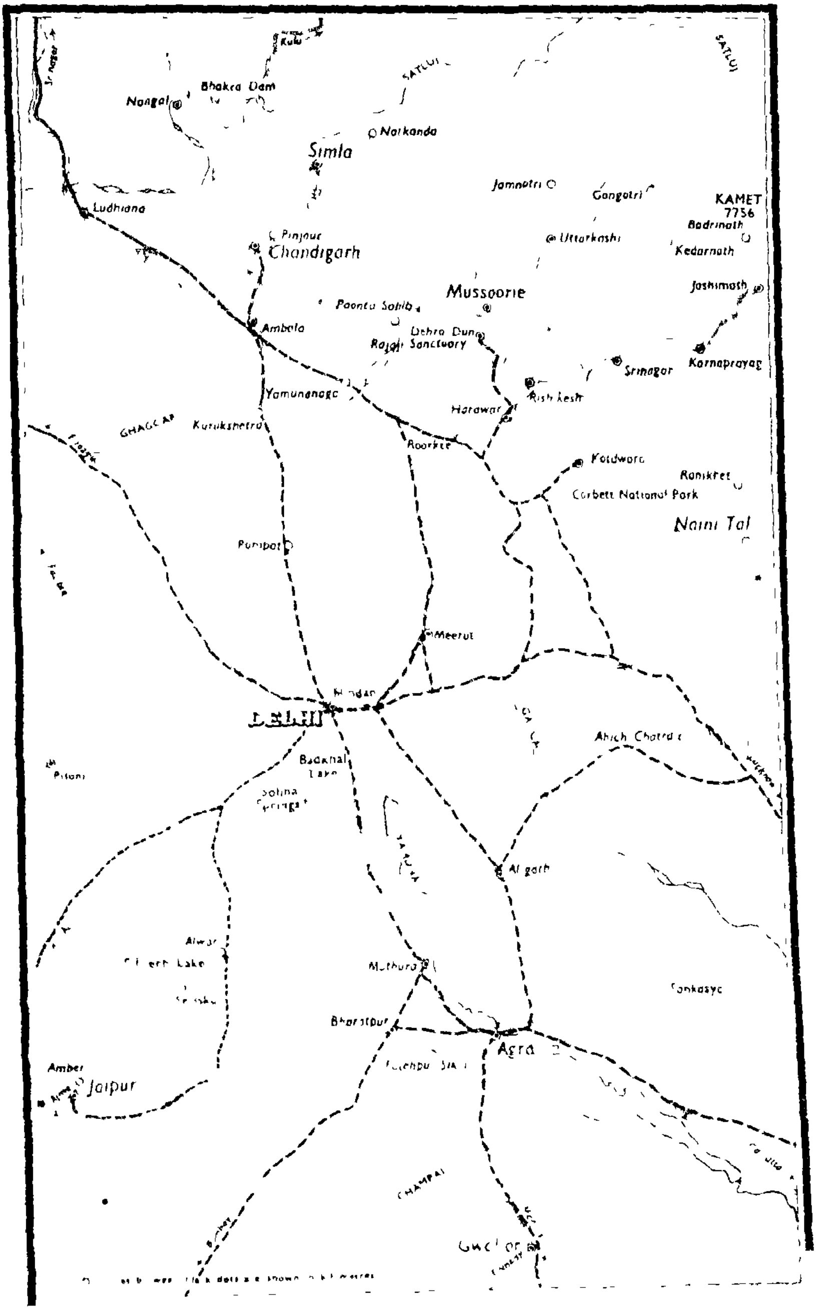


Pottery of Delhi



Zari Handbags

DELHI & ENVIRONS



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